

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 29, 1880.

The Week.

THE Senate has confirmed Mr. Lowell's nomination as Minister to England, together with the other nominations connected with his transfer from Spain. Of general business it has done little, except to discuss Mr. Bayard's resolution concerning the greenbacks, whose chief opponent was the senator from Kentucky. Mr. Beck did Mr. Bayard the service of recalling the fact that in May, 1878, when the act was passed forbidding the further retirement of legal-tender notes, the latter moved an amendment in the spirit and terms of the present resolution. For the rest he indulged in a free use of demagogic talk about the dictation of the money power; declared it "absolute folly" to doubt that the greenbacks would always be as good as coin; and in the same breath admitted that he believed their issue to have been unconstitutional, and hinted at the irregularity of the Supreme Court decision as to the war-issue, to which, nevertheless, he submitted, and would "make the most of it." Mr. Bayard made a masterly rejoinder on Tuesday. In the House the inflationists took fright at their own bill in regard to metallic bank-reserves, saw contraction in it, and refused it a third reading by 158 to 78. The hard-money men generally voted for it, and fifty-six of the seventy-eight yeas were Republicans. Mr. Kelley's resolution denouncing commercial treaties obtained a two-thirds vote on Monday. The question remains, What can the House do if the Senate and the Executive disregard its protest? The contingency is, however, remote enough. General debate on the new rules came to a close on Thursday.

Things have undergone very little change in Maine. The Republican Legislature still occupy the State-house, while the Fusionists meet in melancholy fashion in their hall; but there appears to be increasing difficulty in keeping the latter together. They have drawn up a list of questions, addressed to the Supreme Court, touching their own status, and affixed the great seal of the State to the application for an answer to them, but the judges have formally declined to recognize their existence as a body having any legal pretensions to be the genuine and duly elected Legislature, and "Governor" Smith is reported to be laying aside his unsupported title with great cheerfulness. All these submissions of disputed points to the Supreme Court have been deprived of a good deal of efficacy by the fact that there has never been any formal agreement between the disputants as to the facts, so that the Supreme Court has hitherto decided on assumptions which might or might not be true.

The Republicans have belittled themselves and their position during the week by calling out the militia, garrisoning the State-house, and commanding the front gate with a Gatling gun. This performance seems to have been the result of a hoax got up by some of the Fusionist wags. It appears to have been so successful that the Associated Press telegraphed all over the country that "triangular pieces of white paper" had been stuck on the doors of Republican houses in Augusta to mark them out for the torch of the Fusionist incendiary. As Mr. Blaine is the superintendent of the Republican operations, this awful mark must have excited the lurid imagination which so often has followed the murderous tracks of Ben Hill and the Brigadiers. For two or three days it seemed as if the "outrages" of the coming canvass would be supplied by Maine. The probability of use for the militia is declared not to be over yet, however. The Legislature is said to have passed a bill punishing theft of the State seal, public

papers, etc., under which it is thought it will be possible to catch all the conspirators. As the seal and papers (returns) were removed before the act was passed it is, of course, inoperative with respect to the theft. But it also legislates against those who, having the same, shall fail to return them, as well as against the use of the seal by unauthorized persons. Now, it is intended, when all arrangements are made, to order Sawyer (the ex-Secretary of State) and "Governor" Smith, if he holds out to the end, to surrender the seal, etc. If they refuse, they are to be arrested; and if their friends resist, there will be a row.

We notice that the same nefarious ubiquity which is well known to be a characteristic of Mr. Tilden is beginning to be attributed to Secretary Sherman, though of course in a less degree. The *New York Times*, which was, we believe, the discoverer of the trait in Mr. Tilden, is naturally the first to get on the scent of Mr. Sherman's schemes, and shows them up with unction. It has ascertained that the Secretary "commenced his campaign for the Presidency" as soon as Mr. Hayes was inaugurated, and has since then had the support of the President. Considering the fact that Mr. Sherman long ago announced his candidacy, and that there is no other Hayes Republican in the field, there seems nothing improbable in either of these statements. But the *Times* also learns that the Sherman canvass is being managed as skilfully as possible, and that in all manner of direct and indirect ways the influence of the Administration is made to assist it. Only Sherman men are appointed to important positions, and the Treasury patronage is used "in the most barefaced way." Special agents are travelling in the South at the Government expense and starting Sherman clubs. Several specific instances are mentioned, and a letter of a special agent advocating "the claims" of his chief to the Chicago nomination has actually "fallen into" the hands of a *Times* correspondent. Meantime the Custom-house here is being "fixed," under the thin disguise of enforcing civil-service rules which are so applied as to "clean out the old fellows." The report that Grant would write a letter to the Pennsylvania Convention which assembles next week, declining to be considered a Presidential candidate, is also described as "a scheme gotten up in the interest of Secretary Sherman," to whom, moreover, the *Times* applies the same opprobrious stigma that was found so apt in Tilden's case—"restless activity," namely.

Mr. Voorhees is probably not disappointed with the result of his enquiries thus far as to the causes of the recent emigration from North Carolina; and if he could confine them to that State it might be well for "the party." During the week his committee has examined the President and Secretary of the Washington Emigrant Aid Society, from whose testimony it appears that the founders of that organization knew of no particular hardships among the negroes of North Carolina, and do not now know of any except the system of "store orders" and an assumed poverty-stricken soil; that they diverted the emigrants from Kansas to Indiana on the flattering representations of one J. H. Walker, an active Republican politician and United States mail agent at Terre Haute; and that they "incidentally" mentioned in their circulars what a good thing it would be, by making an early start, to elude the census-taker and so diminish the representation of North Carolina, while increasing the Republican strength in Indiana. This gave them a solid claim to Republican support in their appeals for aid. Still better evidence of the artificial character of the movement came from the Southern passenger-agent of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, who had gone down to North Carolina to help the exodus along and secure it for his road exclusively. Like the agents of other roads, he had arranged with the real promoters of this business, the colored men Evans, Perry, and Williams, at so much per head for

all the passengers they could deliver, and he would cheerfully make the same terms for transporting them back in case they became dissatisfied with Indiana. Evans had been working for upwards of a year through mass-meetings and secret societies, and the use of the Washington Society appears to be to keep the promise of his circulars that emigrants on arriving in that city shall receive clothes and transportation northward. As for Perry, he is said by the same witness to have been forced to leave the State suddenly under a charge of forging school certificates.

The House Committee on Military Affairs has made majority and minority reports in the usual fashion on General Fitz-John Porter's case. The majority recommend his restoration to the Army and the payment to him of between \$50,000 and \$60,000 arrears of pay, after a recital of the facts as found by the late Advisory Board. The minority refuse to pay any attention to the evidence produced since the first trial in the shape of surveys of the battle-field and the testimony of Confederate officers, on the ground that it is not "proper" to do so. They hold that Porter distrusted General Pope and did not obey his orders on the 29th of July, but refuse to pay any attention to the opinion of the Military Board as to the lawfulness and expediency of a corps commander doing so under the circumstances. They consider it foul scorn to take "Confederate testimony and Confederate reports to determine the right or wrong of the actions of a Union corps commander in battle so as to justify his restoration to the Army and the receipt of a large money reward." The breakdown of that portion of the case against Porter which charged him with shirking on the 30th while his brother commanders were resisting heavy attacks, under the production of evidence showing that the bulk of the fighting on that day was done by him and his corps, they dispose of by declaring that the reference of the Board to the events of that day, as favorable to Porter, "is foreign and out of place, and has no pertinence whatever; that it simply vindicates the patriotism and bravery of the soldiers, not their commander." In other words, they think reference to those events on Porter's trial for the purpose of blasting his character was all right, but reference to them for the purpose of vindicating him is damnable and impertinent. Like Dr. Johnson in reporting Parliamentary debates, it is their business to see that, whatever happens, "the Whig dogs get the worst of it."

The conclusion of the report is very bouffé in sound, but is produced seriously. It recommends "the remission of the remainder of the unexecuted sentence" which disqualifies Porter from holding office under the Government, and concedes that this is an illogical recommendation, but justifies it by the fact that all "persons formerly in arms against the United States have been amnestied and pardoned, and the removal of disabilities for offences as dangerous as his to the perpetuity of the Union are of daily occurrence," and deduces from these premises the conclusion "that the reasons of the minority for their action in the Porter case are obvious." These majority and minority Congressional reports make many a man a little ashamed of having his conduct regulated by the human mind; but this particular minority report is somewhat mitigated in its absurdity by the observations of the *New York Times*, which evidently sympathizes with it. That journal opposes Porter's restoration to the active list of the Army and his receipt of back pay, on the ground that during the past seventeen years since his dismissal he has been successfully engaged in professional pursuits in civil life. The fact is, we understand, that General Porter has had great difficulty during that period in supporting his family in any pursuit, for the simple reason that the sentence of the court-martial sent him out into the world as an infamous man, who had betrayed his country and his comrades in the hour of trial, and who was, therefore, regarded by the bulk of the community as unworthy of all confidence. We believe he had to relinquish one situation in the West owing to the insults to which he was exposed in the ordinary course of his business. So that his seventeen years of professional pursuits have really been a piece of

prolonged torture, which nothing but extraordinary courage and fortitude would have enabled him to endure. To point to the fact that he has lived through it as a reason why he should not now receive even the money he lost by an unjust sentence, is even more grotesque than the conclusion of the minority report. We say all this, it is proper to add, with but the slightest possible acquaintance with General Porter, whom we never even saw until after the decision of the Advisory Board.

The report of the special Railroad Committee of the Assembly is, as was to have been expected, a voluminous one; but it is also clear, suggestive, and, so far as it goes, practical beyond the reports of many legislative committees of special investigation. Whether it results in anything useful or not, it serves as an excellent illustration of the kind of work in which legislators can, at all events, be least harmfully employed, and the statistical enquiry and collection of which, if systematically followed out, must very soon substantially improve the value of legislative sessions. The report is, in brief, a presentation in detail of the railway question as it at present stands in this State, and of the inferences which it seems to the Committee are naturally to be drawn from the testimony taken. The most important parts of it may be summarized as follows: Advantageously as New York and Brooklyn are situated, they greatly lack terminal facilities, and the important lighterage charge is a direct tax on transportation without being a benefit to anybody but the lighter-owners; so that, whereas the railroads are in no need of subsidies, they do need better terminal facilities, and the Committee think these should be secured by a co-operative private effort, with, however, "possible exercise of authority." As to rates, the already familiar facts are recited, the unjust and arbitrary discriminations strongly condemned, and the opinion expressed that secret rates should be forbidden. "Competition among railroads as a regulator of freight tariff is a failure." The possible exercise by the roads of vast political power is called "an unanswerable argument in favor of instituting governmental supervision." It is admitted that a road "must be run by brains and not by legislation," but to the plea of counsel that in guarding the interests of its stockholders it will regulate itself, the very excellent objection is made that railroads are by no means invariably run in the interest of the stockholders. For these and many other reasons the introduction of "a public element" is advised, and a commission accordingly recommended. The temper of the report, it is to be noticed, is throughout conservative, and its most positive recommendations are offered with caution and a realization of the difficulties involved in executing them.

Accompanying the report are six bills, one of which establishes a Railroad Commission of moderate functions, and with a capacity for usefulness which perhaps lies chiefly in the power to secure publicity for the acts and accounts of the companies. It is proposed that the Commissioners be three in number, holding office for five, four, and three years respectively, and provided with a clerk authorized to issue subpoenas for witnesses and administer oaths, and a marshal to serve notices; having their offices at Albany, with perhaps a branch in this city; and invested with "the general supervision of all railroads and railways." They are to examine these roads and keep informed of "their condition and the manner in which they are operated, with reference to the security and accommodation of the public, and the compliance of the several corporations with the provisions of their charters and the laws of the State"; to investigate accidents and report on them in their annual report; to notify the corporations in writing of their failure to comply with the law or any usurpation of authority, and to present their neglect to heed the notice to the Attorney-General for his action; to notify them likewise of necessary repairs or increased facilities or salutary changes of rates or fares, with the same recourse to the Attorney-General. They can also call for any desired information and for copies of all contracts and engagements; and they may prescribe

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the form of the report now required to be made by the corporations, and must prepare from them tables and abstracts to be incorporated in their annual report. Finally, they are to draft "such bills as will, in their judgment, protect the people's interest in and upon the railways of this State." As in Massachusetts, the expenses of the Board are to be borne by the companies, and a maximum of \$40,000—\$45,000 for the first year—is assigned.

The New York Court of Appeals has reversed the ruling of the Extraordinary General Term in the Nichols case, and decided, in brief, that the action of the Mayor in removing officers of the city government is reviewable by the courts. His power of removal, the decision also affirms, is not an arbitrary one, but is to be exercised only upon just and reasonable grounds and after due notice to and hearing of the accused official. What the effect will be upon the particular case in question is of much less importance, of course, than its obvious bearings upon the opportunities and responsibilities of the Mayor in his administration of the city government.

The principal financial events of the week were (1) the sale, by the syndicate which bought in November last 250,000 shares of N. Y. Central & Hudson stock from Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt, of 200,000 shares of the same at an average of \$133 per share; the price paid in November was \$120 per share. The whole 250,000 shares were offered here and in London to the highest bidders; the remaining fifth was withdrawn. (2) The consolidation of the Union Pacific, the Kansas Pacific, and the Denver Pacific companies into one, to be known as the Union Pacific Railway Co.; all these roads now come under the control of Jay Gould, who also controls the Wabash system, and appears to be making rapid progress towards the completion of the transcontinental road which has always been regarded as the dream of an ambitious man. (3) The sale, by Mr. C. P. Huntington, of 50,000 shares of Central Pacific stock, with the privilege to the buyers of taking 50,000 shares additional. The buyers are a syndicate of Stock Exchange people, who have undertaken to popularize the stock in this market. One of the reasons why Mr. Huntington sells the stock is supposed to be to get cash with which to extend the Chesapeake & Ohio, and to forward the construction of the Southern Pacific. In addition to these events there have been continued negotiations to complete the union of the St. Louis & San Francisco, and the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé roads in the work of extending their lines to the Pacific coast under the old Atlantic & Pacific charter. The Vanderbilt or N. Y. Central interest has given fresh proof during the week of its friendliness for the Erie by making an arrangement by which the Eries increases its business from Buffalo as well as its New England business. These important events have furnished fuel for the speculative fire in Wall Street, and have been sufficient in their influence on prices to overcome the unfavorable effect of a bad bank statement. The notable event in which the Stock Exchange is, in company with mercantile interests, only indirectly interested, was the break-down in the "bull speculation" in wheat, hog products, and cotton. This was immediately followed by a decline in the rates for foreign exchange; and should this "bull speculation" be utterly routed, a renewal of gold imports from Europe is to be expected. The price of silver bullion in London advanced during the week to 52 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per oz. The bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was \$0.8817.

Talmage on Sunday week "recalled" in his pulpit the assertion he had made in the same place that "materials" had been put into his hands which would enable him to show the "moral rottenness" of the ministers who accused him before the Presbytery. He evidently thinks that by so doing he leaves matters as they were before he made the charge; but in this he is undoubtedly mistaken. Retracting or "recalling" a charge may be all that would be necessary to atone for an insult; but a minister cannot get out of a scrape of this kind in this way. The question still remains, Did he or did he

not tell a lie when he said he had proof of the "moral rottenness" of his accusers? If he had not such proof, he did tell a lie in his pulpit on Sunday, and a lie of a peculiarly atrocious kind, which cannot be "recalled." If he had such proof, he is bound to produce it before a proper tribunal, so as to rid the ministry of the thirteen or eighteen villains who have been assailing him. We trust these gentlemen will follow him up, and force the Church either to own him or disown him.

Apropos of the Jewish controversy, so well summarized by our correspondent in Berlin on another page, a Bremen paper has presented the geographical distribution of the Jews in Europe in some striking tables. Arranging the countries in the order in which this population abounds, Poland heads the list with 13.7 per cent., Austria-Hungary follows with 3.8, Rumania 3.6, Russia (including Finland) 2.8, the Netherlands 1.9, Germany 1.2, and Turkey 1 per cent. But, on the other hand, the absolute numbers (out of a total of 5,000,000 European Jews) give Russia 1,829,000, Austria 1,376,-000, Poland 783,000, and Germany only 511,000, while, dividing the various peoples into ethnologic groups, we find in the Romance but 89,000 Jews, in the Germanic 842,000, and in the Slavic (*i.e.*, Russia and Finland, Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Servia, Turkey, and Greece) 4,047,000. The corresponding percentages are respectively 0.1, 0.79, and 3.6. Their peculiar concentration—eastward in the Germanic group, westward in the Slavic—creates a zone of greatest density extending from the lower Danube to the Baltic. There is a noticeable tendency on their part to flock to the most populous centres, so that in Berlin, for instance, from 1861 to 1871 the number of Jews was nearly doubled, while during the same period there was a falling off of about 16 per cent. in Posen. Bremen, in which the laws against them have been repressive and even prohibitory down to a very recent date, naturally shows a much smaller proportion (0.5 per cent. in 1871) than Hamburg (4.1 per cent.) or Frankfort (9.8 per cent.).

The news from Afghanistan a week ago was very cheerful, almost as cheerful as after the battle of Char-Asiab. General Roberts reported that the chiefs were coming in and making their submission; that the inhabitants had returned to Kabul, and that supplies were plentiful; that it was agreed on all hands that the last combination which had made the attack on the cantonment was the most formidable ever seen in Afghanistan, and that having failed, another attempt at resistance was very unlikely. This week the accounts have changed in character, showing clearly that the real state of the country is no better known at the British headquarters than it was before the Cavagnari tragedy or after the capture of Kabul. It is now announced that Mohammed Jan is preparing another combination, that he expects to attack early in March, and that Ghazni, which he holds, and where he has Mousa, Akbar Khan's grandson, is the centre of hostile intrigues against British rule, and may be the base of the next movement. Moreover, the winter hardships are telling heavily on the troops both in Shirpur and along the line of communication with Peshawur. There is no news as yet of Abderrahman Khan, Shir Ali's nephew, and the ablest claimant of the succession, who has long been the guest of the Russians, who wickedly made him an annual allowance, which he saved. He has made his escape from their hospitality, with the view, it is feared or believed, of setting up the standard of revolt somewhere. A possible programme has been telegraphed to the London *Times*, which is supposed to emanate from the Viceroy, according to which the British force would shortly retire to Jalalabad and Kandahar, and from these points observe without interference the Afghan attempts to set up a government, leaving subsequent action to be determined by circumstances. Whether this scheme is really entertained or is merely put out as a feaver, seems still uncertain. The hanging of prisoners has ceased, and the restrictions on correspondents have been withdrawn.

SCIENCE AND TRADE.

THE present uncertain condition of Mr. Edison's experimentation with the electric light, following close on an announcement that he had solved the problem of divisibility and cheapness, ought to be a warning to investors in these days of remarkable discoveries and inventions, not to be too hasty in accepting news from "the scientific world." There was a fall in the stock of gas companies, both here and in England, on the announcement made through the press, on information apparently furnished by himself or his assistants, that Mr. Edison had succeeded in producing an inexpensive electric lamp, and there was an enormous rise in the stock of a company formed before the invention was announced, to exploit it. This stock is said at one time to have reached \$3,500; within a few days it fell one-half, and we do not know where it stands at this moment. We have undoubtedly reached a period in which remarkable inventions and discoveries may be looked for every year in great numbers, and probably in larger numbers in this country than in any other, because not only does the national genius seem to have a bent in that direction, but the application of science to the industrial arts has perhaps fewer rivals here than anywhere else in claiming the national attention. The industrial type bears undisputed sway among us. The number of inventors at work here, too, is unusually great, and the results of their work are very remarkable. But the inventor is nowhere else followed so closely and remorselessly by the speculator, and the speculator cares very little whether the invention or discovery is a really valuable one or not. His first object is to get stock on the market and get rid of it, and the first accounts of it are therefore pretty sure to emanate from him or be colored by him. The main defence of the public against imposition in this field must be found in the caution and integrity of scientific men. In too many cases hitherto the alliance between the scientific man and the speculator has ended in some kind of fraud or deception being practised on the public—that is to say, the speculator has too often succeeded in making the scientific man's dicta cover more ground than they were intended to cover, and excite expectations which they were never intended to excite, with a resulting explosion in which the speculator got all the money and the scientific man all the odium. The most striking examples of the evils and dangers of this alliance have hitherto occurred in the mining industry, but they have had the good effect of putting mining experts on their guard, and there are few of them now of any repute who care to furnish a vendor of mineral wealth with an opinion to be tacked on to the prospectus and used in the stock market.

Mr. Edison has done one or two very remarkable things in the field of discovery, and things well calculated to excite considerable expectations with regard to his powers. But he had done nothing to warrant the disregard of what may be called the decencies of research with which he entered on the pursuit of the cheap electric light. A "correct and authoritative account" by his "Mathematician," Mr. Francis Upton, endorsed by Mr. Edison himself, appears in the last *Scribner's Monthly*, and in it the conditions under which he began this pursuit are described with curious frankness. He was aware, he admits, that he was about to attack the value of \$400,000,000 invested in gas-works in this country, and \$500,000,000 in England, not to speak of other countries, but he mentions this not as a reason for caution and reticence in communicating the results of his work to the public, but by way of accounting for the ease with which he obtained \$100,000 from capitalists in New York to enable him to prosecute his researches.

The Mathematician traces, in the article we have referred to, the history of experimentation with the electric light down to Sawyer and Mann's incandescent carbon stick, patented in 1873. This, like all histories of experimentation, tells of various attempts, some ending in total failure and some in positive additions to antecedent knowledge, the general result of the labors of the various investigators being that a very good electric light was produced, but a very expensive one, and one that did not

admit of being substituted for gas in domestic use. The way Mr. Edison regarded these labors, however, is revealed in the remark that "Mr. Edison came to the investigation unhampered by the blunders of his predecessors. He had never seen an electric light. He took hold of the subject in his usual clear-headed, practical way. Next to solving a problem, its intelligent statement is to an investigator the most important thing. Mr. Edison saw that permanence in the lamp and a subdivision in the light were the main things to be sought after." *Cheapness* is in fact the main thing, but these others are also what his predecessors saw and strove for, and which his competitors are striving for still. There is a curious *naïveté* in the production of them as discoveries of Mr. Edison's. The whole electric world, if we may use the expression, is and has long been experimenting in this direction, but probably very few experimenters would acknowledge that the valuable failures of their forerunners were blunders "which hampered them."

We do not propose here to examine what Mr. Edison has achieved in his latest experimentation. It appears certain, however, that he has not, as yet, solved the problem of furnishing the electric light more cheaply than gas, to use the Mathematician's glowing language, "in a million domestic suns to illuminate a myriad homes." He may accomplish this feat yet. The fact to which we wish to direct attention is, that he was sufficiently injudicious, not only to allow his undoubted inventive powers to be converted into the capital of a joint-stock company—in which there is by itself no impropriety—but also to allow an enormous speculation in these shares, and an enormous attack on the large body of capital invested in gas, to be developed from very incomplete information as to what was going on in his laboratory. Stories of what he had accomplished, of the correctness of which he must have had some scientific doubt, were spread by the newspapers, embellished with all the reporter's art. The solution of the problem was, in fact, announced by visitors to his laboratory, without contradiction from him, long before the durability of his carbonized paper could have been ascertained; and excursion trains actually ran to his residence, taking hundreds to see the new wonder. For what these visitors said Mr. Edison was not, perhaps, responsible in all its details, but he himself made known through the article above mentioned, which was perhaps written in December, that "his crowning discovery," the electric light for domestic use, was at last "a scientific and practical success." He doubtless made this assertion in good faith at the time, but if events have since occurred at Menlo Park, as we believe they have, proving that he was mistaken, it shows that he had not at that date completed his experiments; and that the admission of the public to his laboratory, and the exhibition of his lamps as in successful operation, was improper, in view of the possible effect of these things on the stock market.

The higher a man's reputation as an inventor or discoverer stands, the greater his responsibility towards the public—and the public includes both those whom his discoveries will directly injure and those whom they will ultimately benefit. If Mr. Edison discovers "the domestic sun" he will confer a benefit on the world with which the loss of the money invested in gas is not to be compared for a moment, and he is not bound, of course, to think of this loss for a moment. But he is bound to see that no holder of gas-stock is frightened into selling at a loss by means of false rumors emanating from his laboratory, or by false expectations created by hasty or defective experimentation; and that nobody with money to invest puts it into electric-light stock in consequence of a premature announcement that his system of lighting is, on the economic side, a perfect substitute for gas. Caution on the part of inventors, and especially inventors of great genius, such as Mr. Edison undoubtedly is, is the more imperative because the public mind is just now in a most credulous condition with regard to scientific contributions to human command over the powers of nature. People are ready to believe anything, and it must be admitted that there is in the achievements of recent years abundant excuse for this credulity. Speculators will unavoidably trade on it, but scientific men ought not to be found lending them a hand.

THE RECENT CRISIS IN AUSTRIA.

THE long struggle over the Austrian military law, which lasted through the greater part of last month, and kept the country in a ferment of excitement, has ended with the complete defeat of the Liberals, or Constitutionalists. Whether the victory for the Ministry is as complete as the defeat is for the Opposition, remains to be seen. Coalition ministries are not apt to hold together long after the common enemy is disposed of, and it is very questionable whether the curious combination presided over by Count Taaffe will not quarrel over the spoils. At present it looks as if the Bohemian question would be the rock on which it will split.

The questions on which the recent parliamentary struggle turned are simple enough. The Ministry proposed a measure by which certain sections of the military law of 1868 were continued in force for ten years from the present time. These sections fix the strength of the standing army (including navy) at 800,000 men; and under them the Reichsrath surrenders for ten years the right of initiating any changes in the strength of the army and also in the number of recruits to be mustered in during each year. The right of annually determining the number of recruits is guaranteed the Reichsrath by the constitution, and consequently a two-thirds vote was necessary to part with this right. The system whose continuance unalterably for ten years was thus demanded was adopted in 1868, when Austria took lessons from her victor and adopted the system of universal compulsory service. The Constitutionalists, the present Opposition, introduced it; and as the period of active service was fixed at three years and that of service in the reserve at seven years, ten years were granted at that time, during which the Reichsrath gave up its right of making any determinations about the army. That the reasons which demanded this abdication of constitutional rights in 1868 are no longer imperative is shown by the fact that in 1878, when the ten years were over, the grants were continued only one year. Now, however, the Ministry of Count Taaffe demanded another grant for ten years. The Constitutionalists did not find it easy to adopt a common attitude with regard to this proposal. Finally, after long and exciting debates within the party, they agreed to grant the 800,000 men for ten years on condition that the peace-footing of the army should be reduced from 252,000, the present number, to 230,000.

Of course there were military specialists enough in the House who said that such a reduction, necessarily bringing with it a reduction in the time of service and training of the recruits, would seriously impair the efficiency of the army. And was it advisable to do this at a time when the state of affairs in Europe gave so little hope of peace and tranquillity? "It is curious how threatening the outlook becomes whenever a ministry wants men or money," remarked one of the Constitutionalists. Even the recent alliance with Germany was brought forward as a pretext for strengthening the army, as if the object of the alliance were not avowedly to preserve peace and diminish the necessity of being every day ready to fight. But by far the strongest argument in favor of the bill was contained in the speech of the Minister for War (or more properly for Defence—*Landesverteidigung*), Von Horst. He presented an imposing array of figures showing that, compared to Germany, France, Russia, and Italy, Austria had the smallest standing army (Italy excepted), the smallest peace-footing, the smallest number of annual recruits, the smallest proportion of the population under arms; that her army cost her the smallest percentage of her annual income, and the smallest sum per head of population.

To the figures presented by the Minister, which were presumably reliable and certainly very striking, the Constitutionalists opposed a simple *non possumus*. Austria's burdens may be less than those of other states, but they cannot be increased, for her means are less in proportion. It may be true that in Austria the army costs only 24 per cent. of the total public income, while the Russian army costs 43 per cent., the French 36, the German 30, the Italian 29. Austria has a public debt of 1,500 millions of dollars, and in-

terest on the debt and the army together divert 60 per cent. of the national income; while something like four per cent. goes for education and one per cent. for trade and industry. Austria is a poor country. She has for years been struggling with a deficit, which has been steadily increasing since 1870, and now amounts to nine millions of dollars. The population is heavily taxed and the taxes are in arrears, especially the income-tax. Suffrage in Austria, as is well known, is based on property; and it is not a good sign to find that in the last seven years, during which the population must have increased by a million, the number of voters has become smaller by twelve thousand. It is difficult not to share the conviction expressed without much circumlocution by members of the Left, that either the debit side of the budget must be brought down to a level with the credit side, or else the country must practically declare itself bankrupt by reducing the rate of interest on the debt. That such a thing is even thought of shows in what a desperate condition Austrian finances are. An increase of income is hardly to be looked for; help must be sought in saving, in diminishing the expenses. The military expenditure is the most unproductive in the budget; yet since 1869 it has steadily increased, now by some 40 per cent. altogether. The saving in this respect that would have been effected had the proposal of the Liberals been accepted (that the peace-footing of the army be reduced to 230,000 men), amounted to only three million gulden, of which two million (a million dollars) would have fallen to the Cis-Leithan part of the Empire. But as the beginning of a new movement, as the assertion of the principle of putting an end to the constant growth of the army expenses, the importance of these two millions cannot be overestimated.

It was acknowledged that the reduction of the peace-footing, as far as it went, would be detrimental to the efficiency of the army. Some few of the Constitutionalists were, indeed, bold enough to express a suspicion that the matter might not be of such vital importance. But what could be said in answer to the military specialists, the venerable generals, who vowed that the reduction would cause the greatest possible harm? The more radical members of the Left took higher ground, and were not afraid to express opinions which were at bottom shared not only by the Liberal party, but by many outside its ranks. It had been their wish that the army itself should be reduced to 600,000 men, and it was with reluctance, and only in order to preserve unity of action, that they accepted the compromise of reducing only the peace-footing. This reduction, as well as the saving of the million effected by it, would have given a needed check to the constant and devouring growth of the military system which has spread from Prussia over all Europe. All those who took part in the recent debates acknowledged that the huge army was an evil, if a necessary one; a few had the courage to doubt its absolute necessity. The international importance of the recent struggle lies in the fact that an attempt in the direction of disarmament was made—an attempt which failed, but which, when the history of the system of universal service comes to be written, will find a place in it. The dangers, social and economical, of this system have been pointed out often enough; its close connection with the theories of the professorial socialists is plain.

Notwithstanding the great superiority of the Constitutionalists in the debate, they were beaten. On two ballots the Ministry failed to obtain the requisite two-thirds majority; at last, on a third, a few members of the Left were persuaded to change their votes, and the matter was settled till the year 1889. How this persuasion was managed is now well known. The Emperor had a confidential interview with the President of the Liberal Club; there was a private meeting of the less steadfast Liberals; the proposer of the Liberal amendment, Czedik, is promised a portfolio. What more need be said? Perhaps the Emperor really was able to give the renegade Liberals information about foreign complications which rendered the maintenance of the efficiency of the army imperatively necessary. More likely it was only "playing soldiers" on one side and flunkeyism on the other. But the inherent difficulty of constitutional government in Austria appears not in the action of these fickle few, but

in another constituent of the vote that passed the law. Looking over the list of names on the record of votes, one is struck by the fact that almost without exception the Slavic names vote yes, the majority of the German names no. The Czechs and Poles all voted with the Right. The Czech representatives, without whose votes the Ministry would have had no chance of success, took part in the proceedings of this session for the first time after a secession of eighteen years. Perhaps it is only a curious coincidence that on the same day on which the decisive vote was reached the so-called Czech memorandum was presented to the Emperor, in which the demands of the Czechs are categorically expressed—demands which, it must be confessed, are, at least for the present, moderate enough. Already a commission has been appointed to report on the memorandum, at whose head stands a pronounced friend of the Czechs. There can be but little doubt that some agreement was made between the Ministry and the Czechs, and that the latter have not given their votes for nothing. As much was acknowledged by Grégr, one of their leaders: "We expect [from the Ministry] the satisfaction of the just demands of our people; we expect, above all, that the equality of all the peoples of this Empire, which has up to the present been striven for in vain, will at last be realized." Many of the Czechs—the Young Czechs as opposed to the Old Czechs—who are led by the feudal nobility and the priesthood, would have preferred to vote against the military law; but what do they care for military laws and constitutional privileges, as long as they think their beloved Bohemia oppressed and their people defrauded of their just rights by the tyrannical Germans?

THE NEW "CULTUR" WAR IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, January 7, 1880.

MY bookseller has collected for me sixteen pamphlets of all sorts and sizes, on "the Jewish question," all published within a few months, and several of which have reached a fourth or fifth edition. Fourteen thousand copies of the first edition of an address by the court-chaplain, Stöcker, are said to have been sold in a week. Herr Glagau, a member of the Berlin Philosophical Society, has started an anti-Semitic semi-monthly called *Der Kultuskämpfer*, and Herr Marr, who first started the present agitation against the Jews, has founded a monthly called *Die Deutsche Wacht*. An "Anti-Semitic League" has been established, the object of which, as set forth in its statutes, is to restrict the Jews to an amount of influence proportioned to their numbers, to oppose the Jewish press, to resist the election or appointment of Jews to political or other offices, to withhold patronage from them in business, and to "free Germany from the oppression of Jewish influence, social, political, and ecclesiastical." The medical faculties in several universities have resolved to resist their further appointment to professorships, and at last Professor Treitschke, who has a great fondness for being on the popular side, has entered the lists against the Jews, and writes: "Let us not be deceived: the movement is very deep and strong. In circles of the highest authority, among men who reject with horror every thought of ecclesiastical intolerance or national pride, one hears to-day, as if uttered by a single voice: 'The Jews are our misfortune.'" Many, in fact most, of the pamphlets before me are ridiculously violent. The Jews are compared with the Gipsies, the Chinese, or negroes in America, the Catholics, the Jesuits, the Internationals, the Free-masons, shoddy aristocrats, etc. They are called, as were the Christians of old, "the enemies of the human race." Their creed is said to be found on the blank leaf between the Old and New Testaments. Their rule of life is the Talmudic verse which declares that, as man among animals, so is the Israelite among men. One writer says they must be expelled from Germany; and a Catholic paper in Silesia, I am told, declares that, but for the effeminate sentimentality of modern nerves, it would have a good moral effect to burn a few of them. The agitation seems in nearly every feature to be surprisingly mediæval and even inhuman. It bears every mark of an unreasoning race prejudice, and is disgraceful to the culture of Germany. I will try, however, to epitomize briefly and impartially the chief points in the controversy thus far.

The orthodox Lutherans urge that the daily press, owned by Jews, satirizes their clergy, conventions, and creed, making common cause with the reddest radicalism, while Christians never feel or express anything but reverence for the Old Testament or for the worship of Jehovah.

They are outraged that a Jewish physician has urged, on purely medical grounds, that circumcision should be general, and that a Paris orator has lately said: "A new Messianic kingdom, a new Jerusalem, must arise instead of emperor or pope"; and accuse them of still cherishing the idea of "overcoming and enslaving humanity." The free religious pamphleteers, on the other hand, argue that the Jews are now the same tricky, avaricious egoists that they painted themselves in the Old Testament, and are bound only by the letter, and fear only the penalties, of the law; and they reproach the Christian church for not having long since seen the vulgarity of the Old and clung to the New Testament alone. The first are more outraged by the reformed, the latter by the orthodox Jews, while both object that the Jews are allowed to send their teachers of religion to their own children in the public schools two or three hours a week. Another writer urges that, though possessed of strong and vigorous bodies and admirable vegetative physiques, a very large per cent. are found by medical examiners too weak of limb, from generations of sedentary life, to serve their time in the army, and, both as exempts and as being unwilling to fight their own race in armies of other nations, are eminently unpatriotic, and, in short, bad citizens and moneyed internationalists; while the "Alliance Universelle Israélite," founded in 1860, is described as hostile to patriotism in every country in Europe.

Again, it is said that, partly by introducing cheaper and less durable wares, as in ten-cent and dollar stores, they have destroyed the demand for good and thorough work, injured the retail trade, etc. Moreover, they are charged with being clannish, and always helping and playing into each other's hands. If a German Jew should see a strange French Jew and a German neighbor in distress, and could help but one, it would be the former, is repeated over and over again. If a Jew does anything at all noteworthy, his fellow Jews constitute themselves a mutual-admiration society to overpraise him. Thus, Disraeli; Gambetta; Ebers, the novelist; Heine, who by his flippant way of speaking of the deepest and most serious sentiments introduced a most un-German element into literature; Lasker, who conducted the National Liberal Party purely in accordance with Jewish interests; and many others, owe all their fame to the art of mutual laudation. It was the rapacious Jews who destroyed the springs of national life in Poland, causing it to fall so easily. Now they are doing the same thing in Rumania, under the protection of Disraeli's policy, as they will later do in Germany. They get the best seats in the theatre, the best coupés in the cars, are first served in the restaurants—all by bribery; and yet never work, produce nothing whatever that adds to values in the world, but only trade and speculate in the wares which others have produced; and therefore, since they decline all kinds of productive labor, refusing thus to bear the full burdens of citizenship, their rights should be restricted. Finally, the Prussian Minister of Public Works, Maybach, in a public address, denounced the Stock and Produce Exchange itself—a very large per cent. of whose members are Jews—as an upas-tree which poisoned national industry far and near, although, in consequence of the great excitement which his remark occasioned, he qualified it somewhat a few days later. On the one hand we are reminded that Marx, Lassalle, and even Nobiling were of Jewish descent, and perhaps in the following paragraph are told that next to their worship of the golden calf is the worship of the Jews for their own race and its traditions, and especially its prophecies. These last, in the scope they are now assuming, will be fulfilled only a few generations hence, when a material civilization shall have gone round the globe to Palestine again, which is best adapted by nature to be an universal emporium, and whence the nations will be ruled by a hegemony of banking satraps and feudal lords. Some Socialists now say that the present hard times are due to speculation and the accumulation of money in a few hands, and that Socialism will never be cured till the people rise *en masse* and drive out or plunder the Semites.

This will perhaps suffice to show how absurdly extreme and inconsistent are the current attacks. They remind an American of some of the anti-Catholic literature in the old Know-Nothing times. It is not impossible that some fanatic may vamp the old charges of poisoning wells and roasting Christian babies. The Jews, however, have shown that they know how to defend themselves. They urge, and I believe most justly, that they have been made the scapegoat for evils which they have not caused. Business depression has other causes, and the alienation of the community from the Christian faith is the inevitable drift of the age, with which they have nothing in the world to do. It is Christian far more than Jewish prejudice which prevents them from intermarrying and assimilating socially with the communities in which they live. It is the long, sad story of their restriction, oppression, and persecution through the Christian centuries which accounts for the accident that all their

family traditions, from the time when they were forbidden to enter any of the trades, incline them to traffic and to hold their possessions in movable form. If they are materialistic and self-seeking money-hunters, it is because they follow, not lead, the tendency of the age. They remind us that they number scarcely 50,000 in Berlin, and but a few thousand more in France or in all Great Britain; that their orthodoxy and radicalism are both less fanatical than that of the Christian sects; that they have always been the "Swiss guard of theism," and that the religious trouble began with Hegel's "veiled atheism" and ended with the Thersitic pessimism of Schopenhauer, neither of whom was a Jew. From Jews came the idea of one God, which superseded German polytheism. They refer with pride to their charities, and to the fact that a far larger per cent. of their young men than of Christians are in nearly all the higher institutions of learning in Germany, and compare their good citizenship with the political insubordination of the Catholic subjects of the Kaiser. There is no secret understanding whatever among Jews, and the Paris Alliance was only to aid in freeing and enlightening the Orient, as opposed to the benighted policy of Russia, from whose purer Panslavism alone Herr Marr sees possible redemption for Germany. That the Jews are proud of their ancient traditions and, perhaps, look upon Europe as young and inexperienced, somewhat as Europeans regard our own country, is for aught we know natural and certainly excusable enough. Their spokesmen now exhort them to remember that "Hamans and Marrs," that jealousy of their money, and religious and race hatred, have always assailed them; to "cleave everywhere to the party of liberty and progress which best represents humanity"; and thus to press forward to the accomplishment of all their mysterious destiny.

So far the Jewish side of the controversy has been a dignified, moderate, and rational plea of not guilty, with very little of the extravagance of their accusers and with almost no attempt at recrimination. Their numbers and influence are doubtless greater than in other large European countries, and no one denies that there are differences in religion and race. Haeckel thinks they spring from a different though by no means inferior species of ape to that from which the Japhetic peoples are descended. They are far the best of all the Semite races, and, in my opinion, both they and we should be nationally benefited by a fusion of blood. One writer, who defends them vigorously in every other respect, concedes at the end of his pamphlet that "Judaism unites realistic optimism with idealistic pessimism, while Christianity conversely is founded on realistic pessimism and idealistic optimism." But is it better to disparage or neglect the present in pursuing distant ideals or in hope of a transcendent future happiness, than to help a people like the Germans to react from the influence of absolute idealism toward a more broad and practical living, as the Jews have done, and to embody the utilitarian ideal of an enlightened even though "centrifugal" selfishness?

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN REPUDIATION AND THE NEGRO VOTE.

To THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Your correspondent McC., of Tuscaloosa, says in the *Nation* of the 1st inst.: "The question which confronts us in the near future is not whether the negro will vote with the Democratic party or with the Republican party, but whether, in local questions involving the honor and well-being of State and municipal governments, his vote can be controlled by the conservative, taxpaying element, or by adventurers and malcontents?" This statement is true save that instead of being a question of the future, near or far, it is present now in Tennessee and Virginia. The disruption of parties began in this State and Virginia in the recent State-debt elections. The divisions then made will continue with more or less permanency for a long time to come. In the first trials of strength "the conservative taxpaying element" has been beaten. In this State another contest is to be held this year, with what result only time can prove; there is, however, every reasonable ground for hoping that the conservative, taxpaying element will triumph and preserve the credit of the State from total ruin. How far this division of parties is to extend beyond the limits of the Southern States will depend on the amount of repudiation material to be found in the Northern States. If the material for a repudiation party is present, leaders, bold, skilful, and unscrupulous, will soon present themselves.

X.

KNOXVILLE, TENN., Jan. 19, 1880.

Notes.

THE late Gen. J. B. Hood's posthumous work, 'Advance and Retreat: Personal Experiences in the United States and Confederate States Armies,' has been published at New Orleans, by his comrade-in-arms, Gen. G. T. Beauregard. The entire proceeds of the sale of this work will be devoted to the Hood Orphan Memorial Fund.—Volume i. (including supplemental matter) of the 'American Catalogue' will, it is announced by the publishers, A. C. Armstrong & Son, be completed ready for binding in February.—The second edition of the 'Autobiography of Prince Metternich,' already called for and in press, will be accompanied by a reproduction of Unger's portrait of the prince.—The February number of *St. Nicholas* contains two special contributions by the poet Tennyson, one of which came set to music. In the succeeding number will be given a delayed revision of the score, which is now ascertained to be the composition of Mrs. Tennyson.—G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly begin, with 'Knickerbocker's History of New York,' a new illustrated "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's works in twenty-seven volumes, the designs being by Mr. F. S. Church. Other forthcoming publications not previously announced are: 'Literary Essays,' by Bayard Taylor; 'The Genesis of Life,' by R. W. Wright; several additions to the New Plutarch series, and a large number of medical works.—Dr. G. R. Cutter's 'Dictionary of the German Terms used in Medicine,' published by the same house, is needed and will be of much use to medical students. In a future edition we hope to see English used more freely, in the place of a number of such useless words as paraphrastic, galactoplerosis, and cholemesis. A list of abbreviations is wanted; nor can we see why names of common drugs, not found in ordinary dictionaries, should not have been inserted, and some brief notice taken of the terminations of German chemical nomenclature. Words used in different senses by English and German writers should be given (e.g., typhus, decubitus). More care should be taken in certain cases (e.g., *Hemmung*, *Heerdklerose*) to supply the word in current use in English.—President Eliot's annual report noticed below is also printed in No. 2 of the *Harvard Register*. In the same issue will be found the final report of the Committee on Elections, declaring Dr. H. W. Bellows eligible to the Board of Overseers.—With the December number *Munson's Phonographic News* completes its second volume, with the most favorable prospects of continuance. Its success, like its tasteful typographical appearance, has been exceptional.—Considerable interest is aroused at Oxford by the election, this month, to a travelling studentship for the encouragement of classical archaeology, which has been offered by a member of the University. The early relations between the Greeks and the ancient civilizations of Asia, and, indeed, the whole of the archaeology of Asia Minor, furnish comparatively new ground for exploration. Probably the new Hellenic Society, which is well aware what the French archaeological schools in Rome and Athens have done, and how amply they have justified the support they receive from the French Government, will encourage and help to sustain both the English universities in so decided an advance in classical studies.—A new society for the publication of Old-Norse literature, particularly of the yet remaining unpublished Old-Norse manuscripts, has been organized at Copenhagen. Its executive committee consists of Dr. Svend Grundtvig (president), Dr. P. E. Christian Kaalund (secretary), Markus Lorenzen, Dr. Vilh. Thomsen, and Dr. Ladv. F. A. Wimmer, all eminent antiquarians. Prof. Rasmus Anderson, of Madison, Wis., has been appointed the agent of the society for America, and persons or institutions desiring to become members should address their letters to him.—With Parts 22, 23 the third edition of 'Spruner's Historical Hand-Atlas' has now been completed (New York : B. Westermann & Co.). They embrace four maps of Germany, and two of Italy (1137-1339), together with numerous side-maps, plans of cities, etc.—The English librarians, while well pleased with the *Library Journal* as an international medium, have found it inconvenient to await reports of their own proceedings from this side of the water. They have accordingly resolved to supplement (not supersede) this publication with "Monthly Notes," of which the first number reaches us from Trübner & Co., a businesslike duodecimo of eight pages, bound up with twelve of the publishers' advertisements.

—The size and costliness of the original edition of Mr. Ruskin's 'Stones of Venice' have prevented it from being generally serviceable as a hand-book for visitors to the city of which it treats. And yet for any one who desired to make a study of the works of art at Venice, and to understand their relation to its history and life, there was no other book

that could supply its place. The author has consequently done a great service to travellers in lately reprinting in two compact volumes, of a convenient size for the pocket, the portion of his original work which relates most directly to the history and monuments of the city, and especially the topical index, which by itself forms the most useful and instructive guide to the works of architecture and painting of chief interest. For the appreciation of the genius of Tintoretto, Mr. Ruskin's notes are, for instance, simply indispensable. The work in its present form contains little that any reader could find superfluous, and it may well be regarded as a necessary companion by any one who would fully enjoy the vast store of art which still makes the half-despoiled city one of the chief treasure-houses of the world. The work has been, as usual, reprinted in this country by John Wiley & Sons, though Mr. Ruskin derives no benefit from this edition. We notice, by the way, that the same publishers advertise their new octavo edition of "Modern Painters" as "illustrated with all the plates and wood-engravings of the original London edition." It is not to be understood from this announcement, which is likely to mislead the unwary, that the "original" plates and woodcuts have been used in this edition. On the contrary, they have been reproduced by mechanical processes, and in the reproduction have been deprived of many of their finest qualities—qualities which give to the originals peculiar distinction, and place them among the most precious works of modern engraving. The American edition is comparatively cheap, but it may be a question whether it is not better to go without the book than to have it in this degraded form.

—A correspondent writes :

"In the *Nation*, No. 760, p. 61, we read : 'Of the three things Goethe longed to see, though *only one* is accomplished, one other, at least, is in a fair way of being shortly begun.' I call your attention to the existence since 1843 of the 'Ludwigseanal,' the junction of the Danube and Rhine. This canal was projected in 1834, commenced in 1836, and was made navigable and opened in 1843."

—The thirty-first annual report of the Astor Library, lately submitted to the Legislature, in addition to the usual information concerning the growth and increased use of the library, states that Mr. John Jacob Astor, following in the steps of his father and grandfather, has conveyed to the trustees a piece of land adjoining the present building on the north, and proposes to furnish the funds for an additional building, increasing the working space of the library by almost one-half. This information justifies the expectation that Mr. Astor will not permit the institution to go backwards while under his protection, and marks a new era in the history of the library. In 1848 Mr. John Jacob Astor provided by a devise of \$400,000 "for the establishment of a public library in New York," naming with others as the first trustees Washington Irving, William B. Astor, Fitz-Greene Halleck, and Samuel B. Ruggles, of which body Mr. Ruggles, the sole survivor, remains an active trustee. An act of incorporation was speedily obtained, an unostentatious building erected capable of containing one hundred thousand volumes, and on the 1st of February, 1853, the library was opened, offering, without restriction, to the public use eighty thousand volumes, carefully selected, classified, and systematically arranged. All this had been accomplished within a short time, considering the task, quietly, without show or parade, and the library partook largely of the character of its first president, Mr. Irving, noted for his simplicity, accessibility, and accomplishments. More space being required, Mr. William B. Astor in 1855 conveyed to the trustees a piece of land adjoining the library, with an area much larger than that then occupied, and announced his intention to erect a suitable building as an addition, and to expend from time to time such sums as might be useful in the purchase of books. The carrying out of these liberal intentions found the library in 1859 in occupation of the whole building, 130 feet front, and containing more than one hundred and ten thousand volumes. General and analytical catalogues were soon after prepared through the labor and learning of Dr. Cogswell, accurate account was kept of the number of readers and the description of books called for by each, that the departments most used might be best supplied, and the total amount expended for books, beginning with \$27,000 in 1849, had risen in 1869—twenty years after the incorporation—to more than \$240,000. At the death of Mr. William B. Astor, which occurred in 1875, the property of the library had almost doubled. Mr. Astor by his will added a legacy of \$249,000, and the entire property of the library at the date of the last report, being further increased by donations from Mr. John Jacob Astor, has reached the sum of \$1,112,957. At the same time the fund for the maintenance of the library has grown to \$421,000, and the number of books has reached almost 200,000.

—With this progress it was to be expected that the advantages offered would not be neglected, and the number of readers actually increased from 23,000 in 1865 to 59,000 in 1879. The library during all this time has been steadily and strictly conducted on the plan originally adopted. It sought to offer to the investigator in every branch of knowledge ample accommodations, and every requisite for thorough study. To this end, and because it was deemed necessary that every book needed should be promptly supplied, it was determined at the inception of the library that it should be devoted to reading and reference, and that no books, under any circumstances, should be taken from the building. Moreover, it has never attempted to attract desultory readers, nor to supply either fiction or the current ephemeral literature of the day. The undertaking was in many respects a novel one in this country, and it is fortunate that three generations of the same family should have so liberally supplied the means and so strictly adhered to the same system. The public patronage of the Astor Library has for some time outstripped the comfortable capacity of its reading-rooms, and the approaching enlargement comes none too soon. There are practical inconveniences in the present arrangement for delivering books at two different counters (according to a distinction of topics which the student constantly finds purely artificial) which we hope may be overcome with the aid of the new building. An increase in the hours during which the library is kept open, the ultimate use of the electric light when perfected, and a quadrupling of the assistants who procure the books called for, are also improvements which the generous object of the foundation imperatively demands.

—It is symptomatic of the long preparation required by our most popular periodicals that the "Midwinter" *Scribner's* should contain such out-of-door papers as "A Wheel Round the Hub," "New England Fences," "Success with Small Fruits," and "Notes of a Walker." More striking still, as evidence of the lapse of time between the completion of a manuscript and its appearance in print, is the authorized account of "Edison's Electric Light," by Mr. Francis R. Upton, the Mathematician of Menlo Park. The opening sentence and one other will illustrate what we mean: "The crowning discovery of Mr. Edison—the electric light for domestic use—is at last a scientific and practical success" "This lamp is Mr. Edison's main discovery." The most enduring contribution to the number is the first instalment of Mr. Eugene Schuyler's "Peter the Great," a narrative already of great interest, plentifully supplied with engravings often after little-known originals. It opens directly with the second marriage of the Tsar Alexis, the father of Peter. "A Wheel Around the Hub" describes a two-days' bicycle ride in the suburbs of Boston, by a club of forty-odd enthusiasts, and suggests much more than the writer is capable of describing. It is a not very successful attempt to combine adventure and local history, but the artists have made up for the shortcomings of the writer, who should profit by Mr. John Burroughs's "Notes of a Walker," on a succeeding page. A capital subject, which has long awaited treatment, is ably and poetically handled by Mr. Rowland C. Robinson in his "New England Fences"; his observations are very close, and will commend themselves to all who truly know New England scenery and the habits of her creeping things in field and wood. Mr. Robinson's English lacks the correctness of Mr. Burroughs's, but otherwise he seems to us a worthy peer of the latter. Mr. Edward Eggleston offers some timely and admirable criticisms on the present modes of Sunday-school instruction, and we hope that the replies which his paper will be apt to provoke will imitate his moderation of language. The political articles (for there are two in this number) show that the editorial sympathies are with the reformers in the Republican ranks—a remark which is, we think, applicable also to *Harper's* and the *Atlantic*, and is therefore of all the better omen. We have found Part iv. of Mr. Cable's "Grandissimes" as entertaining as ever.

—An anonymous paper on "The Strong-Government Idea," and Goldwin Smith's article on "Pessimism," are the weightiest contributions to the February *Atlantic*. The first is brief, eminently to the point, and written with vigorous simplicity; it concisely sums up the progress the country has made "towards the realization of a broad ideal of national authority," the writer says, and, as we may admit, towards the familiarity with such an ideal at the least. The statements of our present condition, and the speculation as to the future, are perhaps of a somewhat summary nature, but the former shows much acuteness of observation and skill in presentation, and the latter must be regarded as sensible in temper, if not wholly convincing, by all who are neither alarmists nor optimists. The announcement that the State-rights theory survives "only as a sentiment associated with the beaten rebellion" is a matter of fact which it

would be difficult to prove, we imagine, though it is also to be said that it would be hard to disprove it. The writer has no feeling for it, evidently, and does not have any fears for the endurance of republican institutions in the event of its total abandonment. More reasons than the excellent ones given, however, for this confidence would have been acceptable, and, indeed, but for the frequent use of "our governmental system," etc., the paper might be taken, perhaps, for the production of an English Liberal of long familiarity with this country, acute powers of observation, but no particular sympathy with the principles still glorified in most lectures on American constitutional law. Mr. Smith's paper is highly entertaining in its review of the history of pessimism, sentimental and philosophical, and doubtless there are many readers who will enjoy accompanying the writer through the long and, we think we may add, suggestive speculation which follows this. It is worth noting, by the way, that the mention of Swift's intense misanthropy is, in great part, Thackeray done into less eloquent and more reasoned language, and—if Mr. Smith is a precisian, though we do not suspect it as regards light literature—that the oft lugubrious Richard Swiveller supplants Mark Tapley as "the impersonation of jollity." Mr. Howells's story increases, if possible, in cleverness, but we are nearing mistrust of the possibility of making the class of people he is so skilfully characterizing thoroughly interesting. Mr. Longfellow has a short poem of rhythmical beauty, and we believe we need particularize nothing else in a rather varied table of contents.

—Perhaps, however, we should not lightly pass over a somewhat remarkable and exhaustive review of Wordsworth by Mr. Christopher P. Cranch. "The age," the writer says, "grows more and more wisely critical, and is continually under the necessity of reviewing and enlarging its former judgments." With the rest the works of Wordsworth "are undergoing that winnowing process," and we have then three pages of the history of his career, when we come to consider him critically. "Nature and man form the substance of the themes he seeks to illustrate"; and though "other poets before him have touched these chords," and he listens to their "fitful strains," "he would commune at first-hand with the soul of man and nature," and the result is that "in the heart of the humblest peasant or beggar he can detect the heraldry of heaven." But he "has his prosaic side," and "the truth must be spoken": "his verses have good health and strong limbs, but they too often lack wings"; "we are not lifted, not fascinated, as we hoped." And it is curious that Wordsworth himself was blind to this; he has "such a proudly calm, persistent belief in himself" that you sometimes "begin to think you must have been wrong in any underestimate you may have arrived at." Nevertheless he "seemed to lack the artistic faculty both in selection and execution." We recur with zest to few of his poems as we do to "the finest symphonies of Beethoven or Schumann." "The truth is Wordsworth wrote too much." As to sonnets, now, "judgments differ of course, but it seems to me there are not more than thirty or forty really fine sonnets among his works." His ear for rhythm and sense of form were very defective, whereas "we could dispense with much profundity of thought were we only borne along by a musical motion which wedded itself spontaneously to the idea." But though "body and soul in verse are both desirable," still "if we cannot have both, let us, for Heaven's sake, have the soul." It is for the prevalence of this latter element in him, for his belief "in the beneficent ministry of nature to the soul of man," and among other things for "the oxygenic quality that lies in an apt expression of a commanding idea," that we must "rank Wordsworth among the foremost English poets." What that rank is precisely, "who can say"? We may be sure, at all events, that "the force of his poetry is more cumulative than dynamic," and "we must give him high praise for what he has uttered in his hours of highest thought and emotion." "We still sit at his feet . . . and are still lifted into a serener air by his confessions of that noble Pantheism which our Emerson has so devoutly and wisely taught us." It strikes us that, in the light of this last sentence and thinking of 'The Excursion,' this paper is also "more cumulative than dynamic."

—*Lippincott's* for February is pretty light reading, and we find little beyond the familiar epithet "varied" in the search for a favorable characterization. "A Day with the Ottawa Chantier-men" is a readable paper on the Canadian lumbermen; Mr. Oswald's eighth chapter of "Summerland Sketches" takes us to "The Delta of the Sumasinta River," and is perhaps pleasantly enough written to postpone the slight feeling of impatience his readers must be beginning to entertain for the conclusion of his series, of which, however, he is evidently making the most. A third

illustrated paper is the first of two by Edward King on "Old and New Rouen," which is popular, but not particularly instructive. "A Future Capital of the United States" suggests "the claims" of Kansas City to that distinction, and declares that "now that the finance question is settled," the question of the removal of the capital will not be long kept in abeyance. Besides the geographical inconvenience of the present capital, it is situated, as appears, in the midst of a people "only faintly loyal"; and though Missouri is shown to have an even worse reputation as regards "loyalty," and to be unprogressive and dead to commercial honor, still Kansas City bids fair to be a great distributing centre, and Congress would not be in danger of starvation unless the farming interest should find it necessary to cut off supplies to hasten useful legislation. If the finance question had not been settled, and Mr. Hayes and General Sherman had not "dropped words" calculated to raise the hopes of Kansas City, we might think any present consideration of the question mooted premature. There is some talk about "Decorative Art," very sensible in the main. Elaine Goodale contributes a graceful little poem. "Adam and Eve" progresses entertainingly, and the shorter stories are unimportant.

—The annual report of President Eliot of Harvard contains the usual amount of valuable statistics of practice which make it the most eventful publication in the college world. As usual, too, it omits no opportunity of insisting on inadequate resources and of making appeals, sure sooner or later to be heeded, for material aid. Of most general interest are the remarks on the defects of the preparatory schools in mathematical, scientific, and English teaching, especially in English; on the feasibility of the New England colleges adopting common standards of examinations for admission; on the growing superiority of the private and endowed over the public schools in thoroughness of preparation; on the abolition of the Saturday holiday; on increase of salaries and institution of retiring annuities, etc. The case of the Lawrence Scientific School does not improve, and President Eliot's conclusion, after enumerating the causes of its diminishing vitality, that the most effective reinforcement which it could now receive "would be the endowment of a professorship of architecture," has almost a ludicrous sound. The Bussey Institution, the Law School, the Dental School, and the Library, are all in need of fresh endowments. That the Medical School will before long be opened to women clearly appears.

—The report explains and defends at some length the connection of the College with the Cambridge Divinity School, and defines theology as including "Hebrew, Arabic, and other Oriental languages, ecclesiastical history, the literature and criticism of the New Testament, natural theology, philosophy in its relation to religion, ethnic religions, and the history of religions," besides "Christian dogmatic theology," which, however, it says, "is quantitatively a very small proportion of the enormous mass" of theological subjects. But this little body of "Christian dogmatic theology" is, after all, the leaven which leavens the whole mass. Without it all these other subjects which the report enumerates would have no claim whatever to be considered theological. "Hebrew, Arabic, and other Eastern languages" would be no more theology than French or German; ecclesiastical history would be simply the history of certain movements of the human mind; the literature and criticism of the New Testament would have no more interest or importance than the literature and criticism of the Rig-Veda; ethics would be no more theological than the common law, and the history of religions would be simply a chapter in the history of civilization, if they were not studied and taught with reference to the support they lend to and the light they throw on the dogmatic theology of Christianity. It is this and nothing else which puts it in anybody's head to call them "theology" and hand them over to the care of a divinity school. The report admits that "the expediency of grouping professorships which deal with these subjects into a separate organization called a Divinity School may be reasonably questioned." The letter of Dr. Bellows, printed in the appendix, defining the objects of the gift of \$40,000 made to the Divinity School by Mrs. Tileston, will place those who administer the school on the above basis in a somewhat embarrassing position, because the gift is expressly declared to be made for the support of "theological and religious instruction." Religious instruction cannot be given through historical explorations or linguistic criticism. It must be given through expressions of belief in dogmas of some kind. By "religious instruction" Mrs. Tileston undoubtedly means instruction in the Christian religion. To use her money for teaching these subjects on a purely scientific method—that is, without bias and with indifference to the effect of the teaching on belief—would, therefore, be, as it seems to

us, an abuse of the trust. A very simple little test will throw a good deal of light on the real attitude of the College in this matter. The school, we believe, needs a professor of Hebrew. Outside Professor Ezra Abbot, who is otherwise engaged, there is little doubt that the best Hebraists to be had in this country, and by far the best, are Jews. If the Divinity School is a scientific institution there will be no hesitation in putting a Jew in the Hebrew chair. His faith or want of faith will be no more of a disqualification for it than it would be for the chair of chemistry. But we venture to assert that no Jew will have a chance of the place, no matter how high his Hebrew scholarship.

—It may be true, as the report says, that, "using the word theology in that broad sense which includes all the scientific subjects above enumerated, it is an indubitable fact that Harvard University has been thoroughly committed these many years to the maintenance of instruction in theology." There is, it seems to us, a little fallacy here. Harvard University has been committed, doubtless, to a study of some or many of the above-named subjects, and these subjects may be called "scientific" as well as theological, but the University has not been committed to instruction in them as scientific subjects. The Hollis Professorship of Divinity and the other theological professorships which were founded before 1819, as the report points out, were founded for the undoubted purpose of promoting belief in Christian dogmas and preparing ministers to teach them, and it is therefore not open to the College authorities to point to them now as examples of the traditional interest of the University in "scientific theology." The name, as well as the thing, was unknown at that time. The College can, of course, if it is deemed best, retain the sectarian character which belonged to it in the early part of the century; but if it now enters into the service of pure science in theology, as in other things, we do not see how it can accept large trusts for the maintenance of "religious instruction," or announce to the world that it is an unsectarian institution. There is, we feel bound to say, a vagueness and cloudiness about its position on this subject which the president and corporation owe it to the University and to the public to clear up thoroughly.

—Mr. Edgar Fawcett's play, "The False Friend," just brought out at the Union Square, seems likely to have a long run. Its immediate success has been due in great part to the acting, but the play, though by no means perfect, has considerable merits. It is probably the best "American" play of a serious sort that has yet been produced—though there is nothing very national about it, after all, except that one of the characters is American. The scene is laid in England and Australia; the plot is wholly English, as are all the characters, except the false friend. The play consists of a prologue and four acts. In the prologue we are introduced to *Lucian Gleyre*, an American "refugee," and *Cuthbert Fielding*, the heir of the great Fielding estates in England. They are in some Australian mountains, escaping from a band of cut-throats; *Fielding* is dying of a fever. Just before his death he reveals his real name and position to his friend, gives him his papers, among which is a diary containing a full account of his life, and then dies in his arms. *Gleyre* escapes, while the cut-throats appear in a highly operatic manner on the peaks of the lofty rocks which compose the scene, pointing at the body of *Fielding*. In act i. the scene changes to the *Fielding* estate in England, where the family have just received the joyful news that *Cuthbert* is on his way home. The principal persons in the family are *Edith*, the sister of *Cuthbert* (Miss Jewett); *Cyril Garland*, engaged to *Edith*; *Lady Ogden*, the aged aunt of *Cuthbert* (Mrs. E. J. Phillips); and *Andrew*, an old retainer of the family (Mr. Stoddart). At the same time there happens to be staying with them *Mrs. Chauncey*, the divorced wife of *Lucian Gleyre*. The scene on the lawn, with the tenant-farmers drinking healths and cheering in the background, is all very pretty. Of course it is *Lucian Gleyre* (Mr. Thorne) who makes his appearance as *Cuthbert*. To carry out his plot he relies on the fact that the man whom he undertakes to personate has not been seen by his family since boyhood, and upon his familiarity with all the events of *Cuthbert's* life, obtained from his diary. The presence of *Mrs. Chauncey* seems at first to be an insurmountable obstacle to his success. She attempts to expose him to the family, but he, with great presence of mind, admits his marriage and divorce, declares that he assumed the name of *Lucian Gleyre* while in America, turns the tables on her, and is recognized by all his relatives as *Cuthbert Fielding*. Up to this point the play is thoroughly well managed, and the climax at the end of the first act is very good.

—The second, third, and fourth acts, though full of telling situations, are not dramatically so well sustained. *Gleyre*, unluckily for him, falls

in love with *Edith*, and out of jealousy of her lover, *Cyril*, postpones their marriage, and tries to separate them. There is a very good scene between him and *Edith* (acted with a great deal of delicacy and pathetic force by Miss Jewett), and another between him and *Cyril*. The best scene of the play, however, is one between *Gleyre* and *Lady Ogden* (who from the first has a lurking suspicion of the imposture), in which she puts him to a test by giving him a picture which she tells him is his mother's, though in reality it is not hers. He has no means of knowing whether it is a likeness of *Mrs. Fielding* or not, and he at once betrays himself. *Mrs. Phillips's* acting at this point, her indignation and resentment, are admirable. Mr. Fawcett's management of the rest of the scene, however, is rather clumsy. Instead of letting this disclosure terminate it, he makes *Gleyre* persuade *Lady Ogden* that he knew all along that the picture was not his mother's, and that he merely pretended to believe what she said in order to punish her for her distrust. She is persuaded by this, and promises to doubt him no more, thus bringing the scene to a second climax, when he again unmasks himself by mistaking another picture. This is, of course, final, and we have a third climax, in which the old lady forces him to admit that he is an impostor, and hurries from the stage to rouse the family and denounce him. The thunderstorm, however, which has been raging during the interview, also comes to a climax at this point, and *Lady Ogden* is struck by lightning before she has time to accomplish her purpose. All this is very awkward. Without being dogmatic, it is safe to say that the laws of dramatic composition will not tolerate so much climax in one scene. Notwithstanding this fault of construction, however, the acting of *Mrs. Phillips* makes it the best scene of the play. Of course in the end the real *Cuthbert Fielding* returns, and there is a very good interview between the two men, which terminates in the false *Fielding* ordering the real *Fielding's* arrest for imposture in attempting to assert his claims to his own name. The end of the play is rather feeble. *Edith* is persuaded, in order to test the true character of *Gleyre*, to find out whether his affection for her is really that of a brother, or something else. This is soon found out. He confesses his love and his deception, and the interview having been overheard by *Cyril*, *Cuthbert*, and other persons, the imposture is over and the play at an end. Why Mr. Fawcett, who is certainly fond of climax, held his hand here, where a climax was really needed, we cannot imagine. Though this is rather tame, the play as a whole is interesting, and the acting generally admirable. Of the comic plot which runs through the play we have nothing to say, except to call Mr. Fawcett's attention to the fact that farce and serious melodrama will not mix.

—The "Galley Slave" is another American play, written by Mr. Bartley Campbell, who, whatever faults may be found with his productions, has the merit of always hitting the popular taste. The "Galley Slave" has run many weeks, first at Haverly's, and, since it was taken off the boards there, at Niblo's. It is a wild kind of drama. *Cicely Blaine* (Miss Maude Granger), an American heiress, is betrothed to an Englishman of excellent character and commanding presence, who would undoubtedly marry her very early in the play were it not for the knavish tricks of one *Baron le Bois*, a nobleman of the vilest disposition. The baron has been married after a fashion to a young and beautiful Italian girl, who follows the somewhat humble occupation of a model, and who is also a model in a sense in which most models are not. The baron, of course, deserts *Francesca* (Signora Majeroni), and she wanders through Italy trying to find him. At length she is successful, and the baron seems on the point of being brought to account when, by a curious concatenation of circumstances, there is a complete misunderstanding of the facts by *Cicely*, who most unnecessarily insists on believing that the betrayer of *Francesca* is her own betrothed. In a fit of indignation and wretchedness she marries *Le Bois*, who thus secures, as he supposes, a rich prize. At the very moment of the marriage *Norcott* bursts into the house, and is discovered in an agonizing interview with *Cicely* by *Le Bois* and others of the *dramatis personæ*. Upon this, to save the reputation of *Cicely*, he declares that his purpose in effecting an entrance into the house was to commit a theft, and he is immediately consigned to the galley-slave by the remorseless ministers of the law for the long term always prescribed in cases of felonious trespass. Thenceforth he is the galley-slave, and the spectator becomes aware of the meaning of the name of the play. Of course *Francesca* and her child turn up at the galley, and there is finally an explanation, and *Le Bois* is exposed, and *Norcott* and *Cicely* made happy again. It is really a very poor kind of play, for the misunderstanding which causes all the trouble is too im-

probable even for melodrama. But there is enough incident, and passion, and villainy, and virtue to thrill the nerves of the average audience, and it is distinctly to thrilling the nerves that Mr. Campbell looks for his success. Signora Majeroni is a competent Italian actress, who does the part of the model very well, while Miss Granger rants through *Cicely's* part in a truly terrible fashion. The rest of the cast is in no way remarkable, though the comic parts are fairly well done.

—Mr. Strakosch's season of Italian opera, which began last week, has so far proved an artistic failure. With one or two exceptions, there is not a member of his troupe whose performances would satisfy the most moderate demands. Besides the absence of any star of the first magnitude, the chorus is wretched, the orchestra weak and slovenly, the *mise-en-scène* miserable. The operas given so far are, "Lucia," "Traviata," "Faust," "Aida," "Carmen," "Mignon," and "Puritani." Of these "Aida" is the only one which requires more than a passing notice. Mlle. Singer, who made her débüt on this occasion in the title rôle, is an artist of decided merit, and would occupy a high rank among dramatic singers but for one drawback. She possesses a very fine voice, of remarkable compass and power; her intonation is perfect; and the quality of her tone is sweet and sympathetic. Her performance of *Aida*, as far as the vocal part is concerned, was very excellent—indeed, we do not remember having heard a better rendering of this difficult part in this city; but her style of acting is inartistic and exaggerated. This is a fault common to her nation (Mlle. Singer is a Hungarian), but one from which Mme. Gerster last year proved to be charmingly exempt. Mlle. Singer is always in a state of tempestuous intensity, and will deliver the softest, gentlest cantilena with a frowning brow and flashing eyes. Next to her, Signor Storti, the baritone, is the most distinguished artist of the company. His voice is very powerful, yet possesses a warm and sympathetic tone, and he produces at times excellent effects. His faults are the same as those of the prima donna, an exaggerated, not to say vulgar, style of acting. If we now mention M. Castelmary, the French basso, who has a fine voice and is a capital actor, like all his countrymen, and Mlle. Belecca, a fine-looking girl, very conscientious and striving to do the best with her little mezzo-soprano voice, we have exhausted everything that can be said in praise of Mr. Strakosch's company.

—The Philharmonic Society's third public rehearsal and concert, which took place on Friday and Saturday last, again attracted a numerous audience to the Academy of Music. In spite of a great disappointment, caused by Mr. Joseffy's inability to fulfil his engagement on account of a bad finger, the performance was very interesting. Cherubini's bright overture to "Anacreon" was the opening number. We cannot speak too highly of Mr. Thomas's violins, who rendered the brilliant and difficult passages with which this overture abounds with the dash and precision of one man. The next number was a very attractive arrangement for string orchestra of three movements taken from two of Bach's violin sonatas—the third and the sixth—by Mr. Bachrich. The selection is a very judicious one, and forms a perfectly artistic and well-connected whole. The first movement is one of those rushing preludes with which every lover of the earliest school of piano-forte music is familiar; the second a beautiful elegy full of the devotional spirit characteristic of the pious, simple-hearted Lutheran organist. The third is a bright, sharply accentuated gavotte, followed by a delightful little rondo. In this instance again Mr. Thomas's string orchestra did admirable work. The concluding number was Rubinstein's "Dramatic Symphony," a work of great dimensions and, as Schumann says of one of Schubert's symphonies, of "most divine length"—it lasts for over an hour and a quarter—but it was given by Mr. Thomas with so much spirit and such clear and correct execution that it was listened to until the close of the mighty finale by an attentive and interested audience. Mr. Rietzel, who played Beethoven's concerto in G, proved a most welcome substitute for Mr. Joseffy. He has just returned from Stuttgart, and will, no doubt, occupy some day a prominent place among the leading pianists in this city.

—The French liking for a logical ordering of things and the French artistic taste have united of late to call forth all sorts of art-bibliographies, or rather iconographies. Not only are all the portraits of Molière and Voltaire, or illustrations of any kind of any of their works, set down in order in stout volumes, but there are detailed lists drawn up of the works of even the less important living painters and engravers. It is with no wonder, then, that we take up "Victor Hugo, ses Portraits et ses Charges," catalogued by M. Aglaüs Bouvenne. From 1827 to 1879 M. Hugo was painted, or drawn on wood, or lithographed, or engraved, or etched one

hundred and fifty-seven times, twelve of the portraits appearing during the first six months of 1879; and there are caricatures enough to bring up the total number to two hundred and thirty. M. Bouvenne adorns his neat little volume of 76 pp. with three illustrations; the frontispiece is a photogravure of an etching made by Célestin Nanteuil in 1833; the second is an etched copy by the compiler himself of a drawing made by Prosper Mérimée in 1840, and the last is a portrait of the poet as he appears to-day. A comparison of the three heads is curious; it is difficult to believe them identical. M. Bouvenne explains the great number of portraits of M. Hugo by pointing out that he has been "the chief of a new literary school, not only the first of poets but the first of citizens, the apostle of every liberty and the defender of all liberties." A few pages before he had likened M. Hugo to Homer, whose "only superiority lies in having been dead three thousand years."

—Under the heading, "The Fate of a Book," the Leipzig *Grenzboten* of December 18 publishes an account of the adventures which befell Dr. Busch's well-known work on Bismarck in the first year of its prosperous career. Seven translations of it have already appeared in London, New York, Paris, Moscow, and Utrecht. Of the original German edition seven thousand copies were sold in less than two months, the total number issued up to date being fourteen thousand, or, including the translations, forty-eight thousand. The Russian edition, of course, was purged of some of the passages relating to that country, and one of the French editions, issued by one of the *Figaro* staff, omitted a large portion of the original work. Why the French press did not deal with the book very gently is self-evident, but the almost ferocious attitude assumed by the German papers was less intelligible. The *Grenzboten*, which was formerly edited by Dr. Busch and still receives contributions from him, attributes this hostility to various motives, personal, political, and Semitic. Curiously enough, among the few German papers that passed a favorable verdict was the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine*, which pronounced the book superior in interest to any previous publication on the events of 1870 and 1871. The paper referred to is Bismarck's "inspired" organ, and never says a word that would be likely to displease the Chancellor. Various rumors were afloat at the time as to what Bismarck himself had said about his biographer's achievement, but they were set at rest when it was announced that he had been rewarded with a diplomatic appointment. The article in the *Grenzboten* consists mainly of extracts from the criticisms which 'Bismarck und seine Leute' called forth, showing that in general they were the more favorable the further the place where they appeared is from Leipzig. The article accordingly opens with some general remarks on the superiority of the English and American press to the German, the inferiority of which is attributed to the corrupting Semitic influence already alluded to. The favorable notices of the London *Times*, as well as our own, are quoted at length with satisfaction, although we were hardly prepared to find the *Nation* described as an "influential London periodical." As Dr. Busch has travelled much in America and repeatedly written on American subjects, this error will clear him of the suspicion of having himself written the not very modestly-worded biography of his own work.

—A special school of diplomacy is to be established at the Vatican. The pupils, it is understood, are to be exclusively ecclesiastics, and are to study the history of the pontifical diplomacy in the original documents preserved in the archives of the Vatican. The report that the Pope had entered into negotiations with France, in which he had expressed a willingness to consent to the exclusion of the Jesuits from instruction on condition of receiving concessions in regard to certain other points, is authoritatively denied by the *Osservatore Romano*, which adds that the Holy See would never consent to drive out of the work of education an order which has rendered such great services in that line. Evidently the course of the new liberal—but not for that reason any the less Catholic—Pope is destined to be one of the most interesting subjects of conjecture and observation for the next few years. As the politicians of Europe once hung upon the nod of the Third Napoleon, as they now speculate about the intentions of Bismarck, of Beaconsfield, of Gambetta, so they will watch for the revelations of the *Aurora*, the new reputed "organ" of his holiness. One feature in that journal has already excited remark. The list of its contributors is a list of men known for their progressive ideas. Nothing could more clearly show the wisdom of Leo XIII.; nothing could be more dangerous to Protestantism than a reconciliation of the Catholic Church with "the spirit of the age," and an adjustment of the forms of statement of Catholic ideas, not necessarily to real science, but to the popular ideas of science. The Reformation of the sixteenth

century was a moral and spiritual reformation, and its first astonishing progress was stopped almost entirely by a counter reformation within the Church, which, like our Western hunters, fought fire with fire. The reformation of the nineteenth century is political and philosophico-scientific. The Church under its late head was content, for the most part, to oppose this movement bluntly, directly, dogmatically, by an *ipse dixit*. Under its present leader the Church will perhaps adopt the methods of its opponents and fight its enemies with their own weapons. What the result will be on the Church it is impossible to predict; but one thing may be taken for certain, the Church of Rome will not be one whit less propagandist, exclusive, and "infallible" than heretofore.

JAMES'S HAWTHORNE.*

IT is a little singular, considering his vogue both contemporary and posthumous, that Hawthorne's place in literature should have been so long left to take care of itself, as it were. That it is an important place has never been disputed by any one, and by Americans at least he has for the past thirty or forty years been accepted as a prodigy in literature; as he was one of the few men of letters of indisputable genius we have had, perhaps with a patriotic people this could hardly have been otherwise. But the very fact of the abundant eulogy of him indicates that there has been a certain vagueness in the general admiration quite hostile to anything like serious criticism. At any rate no serious criticism of him has been written heretofore to any purpose, unless Mr. James would have us except Poe's; it has probably been a little difficult to secure the requisite perspective. Mr. James has thus in great measure had a virgin field. Another of his advantages is the evident ease he has experienced in getting far enough away from his subject not to be overwhelmed by its Titanic proportions. To many of his readers, indeed, much of his book will seem like detraction, and, we may suppose, will be cordially resented. We venture to think, however, not only that this will be unjust, but that Mr. James has made an important contribution to the literature of criticism in America, and that the fact will one day be recognized with the most effusiveness by the same persons who may now be cherishing irritation at his audacity in venturing to describe the features, instead of being content to worship at the shrine, of so august a divinity as Hawthorne. This at all events is what he has done. He has made a careful, conscientious and even vivid literary portrait, such as few of our own writers could have made, we may say with safety; and, we are tempted to add, such as no one of the eminent writers who have contributed to Mr. Morley's excellent series has made. Whatever its comparative value, it has the artistic advantage of being less formally a biography and more completely a criticism than any of its predecessors; it may, indeed, be said to be saturated with the essence of literary criticism, and to be a fine thing in itself. Barring the recurrence of a few stock phrases and a certain consciousness at the start, it is, as an example of what we mean by form, admirable; it is not a narrative of Hawthorne's life, nor an analytic examination of his works, nor a sequence of these succeeded by a formal summing up; its divisions are hardly noticeable, but its continuity is not wearisome, and it is not without the light and shade which the most harmonious instances of literary art sometimes lack. It is penetrated by its purpose, and, in a very graceful and charming way, its total effect is made to leave upon the reader the consistent and single impression with which it is clear the author sets out, and which he nowhere loses sight of either through carelessness or confusion.

This is high praise, certainly; but it is well considered, and there can by this time be nothing extraordinary in highly praising Mr. James's literary art. What is here, however, of most importance is the worth of this impression of Hawthorne which he holds so firmly and conveys so clearly and charmingly. Mr. James's notion of the dignity of criticism is not, perhaps, an unusually high one for a critic of his intelligence and cultivation, but it is unusually distinct and unusually omnipresent. He never forgets his function and its claims upon him when he is engaged in the exercise of it. It happens from this sometimes that when these and the claims of his subject conflict—which is occasionally inevitable—the latter apparently get slighted. Considering how prevalent the contrary error is, insistence on this is not important. But to his respect for his office of critic the emphasis of his characterization of Hawthorne as "exquisitely provincial," and of the New England life which was Hawthorne's material as blank, are probably to be attributed. It is important to him that his vision be not obscured by the glamour of Hawthorne's

reputation, that his standpoint should be that of "the world in general," and that he should describe him and his surroundings exactly as they are, without allowances, and with relation to the whole class of phenomena to which they belong, without personal or other prejudice. This is an admirable and, indeed, the only worthy critical attitude, though perhaps Mr. James assumes it with a little over-intensity and obviousness. But it is questionable if he would have so much to say of the provinciality of Hawthorne and the blankness of the old New England life if provinciality were not a good deal of a *bête-noire* to him. He speaks of the habit of Americans in Europe (page 148) "of keeping one eye, as it were, on the American personality, while with the other they contemplate" foreign institutions. It is possible that Mr. James himself has acquired the "habit" of keeping one eye on this spectacle; it is certain, at all events, that he is not to be caught napping. This is, however, fortunate for us, and we have sides of American life shown us which it is very wholesome for us to contemplate, and which a foreigner could neither persuade us were true nor exhibit so faithfully. But we ought not to get a wrong idea of the proportions of things; and though what Mr. James notes about New England and Hawthorne is true, and though he only notes it among many other qualities, it seems to us that he insists upon it a little too much—that, whatever the truth of the things he says, the tendency of them, the impression they leave, is a little too strong, and that following him here too implicitly would lead us astray. One asks himself, How important is it that Hawthorne was provincial? Did his provinciality in any way hamper his genius? Did it not rather assist it, or at least determine its fortunate direction? Still, in a complete portrait of the man it was by all odds worth pointing out; and if a great many admirers of Hawthorne, to whom he is a Titan of letters besides being an exquisite romancer, could have ascertained it in no other way—and we are not sure that they could—it was worth dwelling upon and reiterating.

We by no means agree, however, with Mr. James's regret concerning the blankness of Hawthorne's surroundings. On the contrary, it seems to us an extremely lucky thing. Mr. James gives this striking picture of them (p. 42):

"No State, in the European sense of the word, and indeed barely a specific national name. No sovereign, no court, no personal loyalty, no aristocracy, no church, no clergy, no army, no diplomatic service, no country gentlemen, no palaces, no castles, nor manors, nor old country houses, nor parsonages, nor thatched cottages, nor ivied ruins; no cathedrals, nor abbeys, nor little Norman churches; no great universities, nor public schools—no Oxford, nor Eton, nor Harrow; no literature, no novels, no museums, no pictures, no political society, no sporting class—no Epsom nor Ascot!"

To find his lines cast in these places would be an almost crushing thing for every romancer in literary history, perhaps, save Hawthorne. But Hawthorne is almost the only romancer who was not concerned with painting life at all. He was engaged, to use a phrase of Carlyle's concerning quite a different writer, "airily sketching out" certain currents in life, and this with a good deal of graceful disregard for anything but his own fancy. Mr. James is, on the other hand, passionately fond of life. He enjoys nothing so well as to assist ("as the French say," he would explain) at the spectacle of it. Elsewhere he regrets that Hawthorne has not left us "a picture of the Boston society of fifty years ago"; he notes Hawthorne's absence of realism and recurs to it again and again; he has a partiality for 'The House of the Seven Gables' because it is "pervaded with that vague hum, that indefinable echo, of the whole multitudinous life of man, which is the real sign of a great work of fiction"; the chief fault he finds with it is, that "Holgrave is not sharply enough characterized," that "he lacks features," and that "he is not an individual, but a type." Throughout the book he seems to regard Hawthorne as a novelist, at least to regard him from the novelist's standpoint. He has a long, an ingenious, and an interesting contrast of 'The Scarlet Letter' with Lockhart's novel 'Adam Blair,' for example, which seems to us quite amiss. So far from applying the standards of the novelist to the author of 'The Scarlet Letter,' we should instead have great doubts about calling his romances "novels" at all—except, perhaps, 'The Blithedale Romance.' If it be necessary to do this in order to distinguish Hawthorne in kind from the mass of the other great romancers it is eminently appropriate; and it may have been Mr. James's intention to do only this—it is evidently a question which he alone could decide; but we are obliged to judge from the impression he makes upon us, and that is of considering at much length the merits and shortcomings of Hawthorne in a sphere to which he conspicuously does not belong.

Perhaps this also results from Mr. James's notion of the dignity of criticism and respect for academic canons. The difficulty with too keen

* English Men of Letters. Edited by John Morley. Hawthorne. By Henry James, Jr. London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Brothers.

a sense of the worth of academic canons is, however, well understood ; it is that the critic whose criteria are the usually excellent ones of "the world in general" is apt to miss something of the flavor of the individual genius he is considering, and not to be quite careful enough concerning the sureness of his sympathy. We have the word for it of so sceptical a critic as Sainte-Beuve that sympathy is part of the necessary equipment of the critic ; but it is quite true that it is a quality generally most insisted upon by the transcendental order of critics, and we should say that if anything jarred on Mr. James more than provincialism it was transcendentalism. He is probably so hostile to its essence that he has small respect for any of its dicta. At all events, his own method in literary criticism is, like his method in fiction, that of looking at the thing in question upon all sides, considering it in all its relations, describing it in detail, and representing it "as it is," from a strictly impersonal view-point—"objectively, as the metaphysicians say." This is admirable, when one feels sympathetically towards the thing in question, or, we may add, at the risk of making an unusual statement, towards its opposite. Now and then it has seemed to us Mr. James does not feel in either of these ways concerning his subjects, and in these instances he loses the pith of the matter. In the present work he speaks of Thoreau (page 94) in this way : "He was imperfect, unfinished, inartistic ; he was worse than provincial—he was parochial. It is only at his best that he is readable," than which nothing, it seems to us, could be more unhappy. He means that Thoreau was unacademic, which is so true that it is almost a slip to speak of it ; but surely one would be hard bestead to find anything more perfect, finished, and artistic than many things in the 'Week.' On the other hand, it is perhaps his intimate hostility to the whole spirit of the New England transcendental movement that leads him to speak thus of Margaret Fuller : "It is safe to assume that Hawthorne could not, on the whole, have had a high relish for the very positive personality of this accomplished and argumentative woman, in whose intellect high noon seemed ever to reign, as twilight did in his own. He must have been struck with the glare of her understanding, and, mentally speaking, have scowled and blinked a good deal in conversation with her." Again, the habit of relying upon one's observation, the being accustomed to see far more clearly and deeply than most people, inevitably begets an occasional careless trustfulness in itself.

It is due to both these reasons, we may infer, that Mr. James's account of Hawthorne fails in the respects in which it does fail. We cannot help thinking that if he had had a quicker sympathy with Hawthorne he would not have been so deeply impressed with Hawthorne's provinciality and the blankness of his surroundings, and he would not have omitted so conspicuously to consider the poetic quality of his writings. He once or twice refers to a poetic passage, and at the end he says, "he was not simply a poet," for "the poets are more purely inconclusive and irresponsible," which implies that he was a good deal of a poet. But here as elsewhere his poetry is referred to by implication and rarely, whereas his qualities as a novelist are mentioned directly and abundantly. Consistently, too, it is his poetic quality that Mr. James in a sort objects to ; that is to say, one feels that he considers his fancifulness a limitation of his powers as a novelist. In many regards there has been no such just judgment of 'The Scarlet Letter' written. But it is impossible to be quite satisfied with this : "The faults of the book are, to my sense, a want of reality and an abuse of the fanciful element—of a certain superficial symbolism." And he goes on :

"The people strike me not as characters, but as representatives, very picturesquely arrayed, of a single state of mind ; and the interest of the story lies, not in them, but in the situation, which is insistently kept before us, with little progression, though with a great deal, as I have said, of a certain stable variation, and to which they, out of their reality, contribute little that helps it to live and move. . . . Lockhart was struck with the warmth of the subject that offered itself to him, and Hawthorne with its coldness Hawthorne was a thin New-Englander, with a miasmatic conscience. The idea of the mystic A . . . should, I think, have been just made and dropped ; . . . his enjoyment of it is puerile. . . . Hawthorne is perpetually looking for images which shall place themselves in picturesque correspondence with the spiritual facts with which he is concerned, and of course the search is of the very essence of poetry. But in such a process discretion is everything."

And in reviewing such a process, one feels impelled to add, ultra-discretion is dangerous. It almost calls for cordiality. In the review of 'The House of the Seven Gables' we find the same slight inadequacy. In the account of the 'Note Books,' after quoting "The aromatic odor of peat-smoke in the sunny autumnal air is very pleasant," Mr. James adds : "The reader says to himself that when a man turned thirty gives a place

in his mind—and his inkstand—to such trifles as these, it is because nothing else of superior importance demands admission," and he laments afresh the "simple, democratic, thinly-composed society."

But when he ceases to object to Hawthorne's unsubstantiality *per se*, and to the extent to which it is sometimes pushed, and comes to consider generally the quality of his mind and the complexion of his temperament, he writes with a subtle felicity, and, at the same time, a certain wholesomeness, that are the mark of literary criticism of the first class. His portrait of Hawthorne discloses what we believe to be the truth about him, and, as we have said, this has never been formulated with any precision heretofore. On the one hand Hawthorne appears in this portrait a very different figure from the fiction conceived by M. Emile Montégut, who represents him, as he would perhaps be likely to appear to the Gallic imagination, as a *romancier pessimiste*. All that can be said in support of this Mr. James says is true "with a difference." Hawthorne was a *romancier pessimiste*, "minus the conviction." On the other hand, the popular American notion that he was a genuine Puritan, and that his books are, from the very fact of their poetic imaginativeness, valuable enforcements of the Puritan morality, important expositions of the Puritan code of ethics, as it were ; that they emphasize the awfulness of sin, and its universality ; and that the human conscience is treated in them with vivid realism, Mr. James very happily shows to be wholly beside the mark. One has only to think of the difference between 'Faust,' for example, and 'The Marble Faun' to see how different in kind was Hawthorne's treatment of sin and the conscience from treatment so little "realistic" as even Goethe's. "Nothing is more curious and interesting," says Mr. James, "than this almost exclusively *imported* character of the sense of sin in Hawthorne's mind : it seemed to exist there merely for an artistic or literary purpose." That this purpose was not the reverse of trivial, however, no one will pretend. Just how serious it was, Mr. James intimates in the last sentence of his book, a sentence which, quite as much through what it suggests as what it states, defines Hawthorne's place almost with precision : "Man's conscience was his theme, but he saw it in the light of a creative fancy which added out of its own substance an interest, and I may almost say, an importance."

WOOLSEY'S COMMUNISM AND SOCIALISM.*

THE greater part of this book appeared in the form of weekly letters last year in the *Independent*. It contains, first, an historical sketch of the various attempts made to establish societies, small and great, united in common life by some one principle or motive, and holding all property in common for the general undivided interest of the members, beginning with the Buddhist monasteries, and coming down through the Christian monasteries and communistic sects to the Harmonists, Zoarists, Inspirationists, Oneida Communists, and Shakers of our own day. Dr. Woolsey then discusses with greater fulness the various socialistic theories and Utopias of our own time, and examines the extent to which they have laid hold of the popular mind, and their probable influence on the future of modern society. The former portion is necessarily a mere outline; the latter is more interesting, as containing the author's opinions on some questions which are now seriously affecting the political life of the Old World at least.

We must, however, take exception to Dr. Woolsey's definition of the terms Communism and Socialism. He treats them as synonymous, "the first of earlier origin than the other," and puts on the same level with them "two others of still more modern birth," Collectivism and Mutualism. That they are used frequently as synonymous in the popular writing of the day is true. As a matter of fact, however, we believe Socialism took its rise as a generic term, denoting the subordination of political reform to social reform—or, in other words, the substitution in politics of social questions for questions relating to the structure of the government or the distribution of political sovereignty. As such it included, and properly includes, Communism, Mutualism, Collectivism, Fourierism, as species. A Socialist is, strictly speaking, a man who seeks a change in the industrial organization of society as the end of political action, and the change may take the form either of Communism, or Fourierism, or of several other systems. Communists are, therefore, a sect of Socialists, and they demand the abolition of individual property and its transmission to the state, to be used by the state both as capital and as the reward of labor. "The plan," to use Dr.

* "Communism and Socialism in their History and Theory. A Sketch, by Theodore D. Woolsey." New York : Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.

Woolsey's language, "is to take away all means of production—all land, machinery, manufactories, all means of transport, and transfer them as property to the state ; to abolish all private trade, credit, business relations, and the medium of circulation."

His examination of the probable effect of such a plan on the foreign relations of the state, on its finances, on the patriotism and public spirit of the people, on the monetary circulation, on knowledge, and on the relations of the community thus organized to religion, to marriage, and the family, is both interesting and suggestive. Though perhaps sufficient for the audience to which he originally addressed himself—"those who would relish neither extensive details touching the communities of the past, which have left no mark on society, nor a long exposition of the economic principles of modern Socialism"—one cannot help wishing that he had in the volume before us treated these topics with greater fulness. The closing chapter on the probable future of Socialism, and the extent to which it threatens the present form of society with overthrow, overlooks, as it seems to us, two important considerations. One is, that there is no sign as yet that the passion for equality, which, as Dr. Woolsey truly says, constitutes the strength of Socialism, has at all shaken the passion for individual ownership. This appears to be everywhere as strong as ever. Men may desire that nobody shall possess more property than his fellows, but Socialistic agitation has not as yet revealed any evidence that the instinct of private ownership has been at all weakened in the race, or that it does not actually gain strength with the progress of civilization. All attempts to extinguish it or keep it in tolerable subjection even among small numbers of men, unaided by religious enthusiasm, have thus far failed miserably. The strength of Socialism lies in popular hostility to large accumulations of wealth in single hands, but we doubt if there are ten per cent. of the Socialists who, if put to the test of practice, would agree never to own anything themselves individually. This fact makes the numbers of Socialist voters in any country very delusive as an indication of the real strength of the movement, or of its danger to the present social organization. What they are really seeking, in the bottom of their hearts, is not the abolition of property, but a more satisfactory division of it among individual proprietors.

The second consideration is this : Dr. Woolsey takes Schaeffle's description of the probable practical working of Socialism as the basis of his remarks. In the system thus described, Marx's standard of value, the time spent in labor, is to prevail ; that is, an hour of any one kind of labor is to entitle a man to as much of the common stock as an hour of any other kind of labor. In the Socialistic state everything the individual needs is to be kept in state storehouses, and thither each person is to go with his certificate of the number of hours he has worked, and draw as much of the goods as this entitles him to. The state is to own everything—land, machinery, buildings, every instrument of production and all products of industry. Now, Schaeffle, to say nothing of Karl Marx or Lassalle, argues as if "the state" were an individual of extraordinary power, who could take over the property of the community by proclamation, and manage it with as much ease as the Government now manages the post-office. That this illusion should run through the speculations of Continental reformers is not surprising, considering the mystery which surrounds the Government, even in the eyes of educated men, in every Continental state. But it is surprising that Dr. Woolsey, as well as most English and American writers who have attacked Socialism, have failed to perceive that it is through an examination of the term "the state" that the movement can be most easily breached. The state in its executive capacity is simply a large body of agents, not a mysterious and all-powerful will pervading the community. Transferring the property of the community to the state does not mean, therefore, simply the issue of a decree ; it means the seizure and safe-keeping of all the machinery, buildings, raw material, lands, minerals, farm-produce, by a vast body of officers, under some system of accountability and discipline and inspection, and these officers would have to be at least one-third as numerous as the present individual owners, and would have to be persons of good character and of a certain amount of capacity. When the work of production began, there would have to be another body of officers, of still higher capacity, to decide what should be produced, and to select and superintend the processes of production, and to see that the laborers did their hour of labor, and to give them certificates of having done it. These officers would have to provide some means, too, of preventing too much labor being expended in particular fields of production, and prevent the total abandonment of the coarser forms of labor ; for who would engage in street-cleaning, ditching, draining, and the removal of night-soil when his order on the public store could

be had just as readily for grooming horses, or sawing firewood, or hay-making ? The storekeepers, too, would have either to serve goods out according to their own view of each applicant's proper necessities—a wonderful task—or else allow the full play of individual tastes. But if they allowed the play of individual tastes, how would it be possible to adjust the supply of particular articles to the demand ? In saying this we simply indicate the difficulties of the plan. Any sane man can readily picture to himself the rest of the problem. In short, "the state," under communism, even in the State of New York, would be an army of officials larger than that which Xerxes led into Greece, charged with duties which none but very extraordinary men have hitherto shown themselves capable of performing, and drawing to such a degree on the organizing power of the community that there would be no one left to command them. In fact, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that so much industry and talent would be absorbed in storekeeping and distributing and superintending, that there would be but little or none left for production. A mere glance at this aspect of it gives the whole scheme the character of a Bedlamite dream, and might well save grave social philosophers the trouble of examining the effect it would have in practice on morals or religion, or commerce, or war.

A GREAT DICTIONARY OF GEOGRAPHY.*

THE first volume of M. Vivien de Saint-Martin's 'Geographical Dictionary,' a large quarto of eight hundred and fifty pages of very fine print, embraces the letters A, B, and C (entire). Considering the amount of space generally occupied by these three letters in similar French publications, it is evident that the whole work is intended to be finished in two more somewhat larger, or in three more smaller, volumes. In any case it will be a work of vast dimensions among publications of its kind, and as the production, not of a corps of writers under the lead of one or more editors, but mainly of one author, aided by assistants—an author, too, who means to write and systematically elaborate, and not merely to compile—it is an almost gigantic literary enterprise. Of the few scholars who would dare to approach such a task M. Vivien de Saint-Martin is one of the best prepared. A student of geography from childhood, the writer or editor of a score of geographical publications of note—the first of which, 'Atlas universel,' appeared in 1825—an indefatigable collector and annotator, he had almost half a century of preparatory labor behind him when he definitely shaped his plan, and now, almost an octogenarian, he calmly and vigorously proceeds in its execution. It is needless to add that the great publishing house which issues the Dictionary amply supplies him with materials and aids of every kind.

This 'Geographical Dictionary' combines the features of a systematic geography and of a gazetteer. The larger articles contain extensive descriptions—physical, political, economical, and ethnological—ample historical notices, and a large amount of appropriate bibliography. The sources from which the information is drawn embrace the best authorities on the subject to be found—in the original or in translation—in English, French, Italian, or Spanish ; the descriptions are pleasantly executed ; and long quotations from famous writers, not exclusively modern and Occidental, add variety to the more interesting pages. Not only such articles as "Albanie," "Arabie," "Basques," or "Chine" are elaborate and attractive, but even notices like "Brooklyn" or "Baltimore" are very readable. It is unnecessary to state that everything concerning France and her colonies is treated with special minuteness. What we should particularly call the gazetteer-part of the work is to contain notices of from twelve to fifteen thousand communes of France. Europe altogether is to occupy three-fifths of the entire work. In spite of this there remains room enough—to cite one American name—for Albany, county of New York (7 lines) ; Albany, county of Wyoming (5 l.) ; Albany, capital of New York (nearly 70 l.) ; Albany, town of Georgia (9 l.) ; Albany, town of Oregon (8 l.) ; Albany, township of Vermont (2 l.) ; and Albany, township of Maine (2 l.). As to the share of Great Britain in the collection we may mention that upwards of sixty names of localities compounded with "Bally" (Ballyadams, Ballybacon, etc.) are separately noticed. As a characteristic bibliographical sample we may literally reproduce the "Bibliographie" of "Colorado":

"Bayard Taylor, *Colorado* : New York, 1867.—W. A. Bell, *New Tracts in North America : a journal of travel . . .* ; Londres, 1869, 2 vol.—Du même, *On the Basin of Colorado* ; Journ. of the Royal Geogr. Soc., 1869.

* "Nouveau dictionnaire de géographie universelle. Par M. Vivien de Saint-Martin, président honoraire de la Société de Géographie de Paris, membre correspondant de l'Académie royale de sciences de Berlin, etc., etc." Tome premier. Paris : Hachette & Cie. ; New York : F. W. Christern. 1870.

vol. xxxix.—S. Bowles, *The Switzerland of America: a summer vacation in Colorado*; Boston, 1869.—W. Blackmore, *Colorado*; Washington, 1869, in-4to.—S. Southworth, *The new State of Colorado*; Geographical Magazine de Markham, mai 1875, p. 139-144.—Enfin un grand nombre de Mémoires sur la géographie, la géologie, l'histoire naturelle, l'archéologie du Colorado ont été publiés par F. V. Hayden et ses collègues dans les *Bulletins of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories*.

The bibliography of "Chine," nearly a page long, reaches down to the year 1873, but that of "Algérie" stops at 1873, that of "Australie" at 1872, and that of "Amour (Territoire de l')" at 1870. The titles, in various languages, are everywhere given with the same correctness which characterizes those above cited in English. The same accuracy marks, on the whole, the endless mass of names in most European languages, and also the Oriental names in scholarly French renderings. (The translation of names of this class is a feature of additional value.) Frequent inaccuracies occur, however, in Slavic names—the Russian excepted, in the revision of which the author has had excellent assistance—and especially in the names of polyglot Hungary. On page 540, for instance, we find "Kujarski," "Ousnica," "Ouszero," "Bzoura," "Tarnor," "Ropezy," "Visloka," all Polish names false on their face; and on page 413 many more incorrect Magyar names: "Beregszasz," "Munkaes," "Temesvár," "Nagy-Varad," "Körös," "Temes," "Bereny," "Zagrya," "Somegy," "Debreczén," "Unghvár," etc., etc. Worse mistakes occur in an Austro-Hungarian table of populations (p. 276), in which, besides many wrong spellings, "Kolosvar ou Zombor (Hongrie). . . . 25,000; Klausenbourg, capitale de la Transylvanie, 25,000;" stands for this: Kolosvár ou Klausenbourg, capitale de la Transylvanie, 25,000; Zombor (Hongrie), 25,000.

Some lack of accuracy is discoverable also in regard to historical dates in the shorter notices. Thus, we read under "Bladensburg": "Les Anglais y gagnèrent une bataille en 1815" (they did in 1814); and under "Bull-Run": "ruisseau devenu célèbre par la première bataille de la grande guerre de sécession, le 21 Juin, 1861" (it was fought on July 21). The second battle of Bull Run is not mentioned; the battles fought near Chattanooga and on the Chickahominy, and the operations for and after the capture of Atlanta, are correctly spoken of under the respective titles, but, probably from caution, without a date; Chickamauga, mentioned under "Chattanooga," has no separate notice. Some of the historical remarks are clear evidences of the writer's patriotism. Under "Bazeilles" we read: "Ce malheureux bourg, théâtre d'une action sanglante, le 1er Septembre, 1870, entre les Français et les Prussiens, fut le lendemain mis au pillage et impitoyablement livré aux flammes par ces derniers, en ressentiment des pertes cruelles qu'ils y avaient éprouvées." The fact is correct, but the reason alleged is a French version. Under "Canada," this remark is attached to a statement about the early French settlers: "Si leurs successeurs avaient continué leur œuvre dans le même esprit, l'Amérique serait en très-grande partie française."

To carry out a detailed examination of a number of the more extensive articles—and to pick out one or two could hardly serve any critical purpose—would require much more time and space than we can devote to this work. Suffice it to say that our general impression is that no library of any pretension can afford to remain without it.

Camps in the Caribees. The Adventures of a Naturalist in the Lesser Antilles. Illustrated. By Fred. A. Ober. (Boston: Lee & Shepard, 1880. 8vo, pp. 366.)—This narrative of experiences in Guadeloupe, Martinique, Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and the Grenadines, conveys in a popular manner a good deal of information on various branches of natural history. During a year and a half the author, in the field, in camp, or in the huts of the natives, armed with note-book and camera, gathered only such items as in his judgment would have a general interest. Though not at all exhaustive in the topics upon which he touches, he has succeeded in making an interesting work. The distances travelled were short; no hostile men and few or no ferocious beasts were met with; the country traversed is one in which an enthusiastic lover of nature revels in diversity. Mingled with the stories of adventure are descriptions of scenery and comprehensive notes on the plants, the birds, and the Caribs. Some space is devoted to early history and antiquities, and an enjoyable chapter to the home of the Empress Josephine and its surroundings. The primary object of the expedition being a collection of birds, these receive a great deal of well-bestowed attention.

The scientific pretensions of the work are most open to criticism. It is

doubtful whether many will agree with our author in regard to the mysterious current spoken of in the opening chapter:

"Along the entire group of the Caribee Isles, sweeping their western shores, flows a strange, mysterious current. Not subject, apparently, to the laws that govern the winds and tides of this region, it for years puzzled and baffled the ablest navigators and oldest sailors." "It was not known until a comparatively recent period that it was the outflow of a mighty river—no less than the great Orinoco—that caused all this disturbance of waters, and that dependent upon its different stages was the force of this river through the sea."

The great equatorial current, off the northeast coast of South America, flowing into the Caribbean Sea and making the Gulf Stream possible, carries the waters of the Orinoco in this direction, but their presence so many hundred miles to the northward and westward of the mouth of the river could only be a consequence, not a cause, of the Gulf Stream. The story of the discovery of the boiling lake in 1875, p. 66, needs investigation. A map of Dominica, published many years earlier, now in possession of Mr. Wm. Stedman, of Roseau, has a nameless lake in the position assigned to the recent discovery. In the account of the Hercules beetle, on page 158, the writer adopts an idea prevalent among the natives. It is said that the beetle seizes small branches between its horns (so called), and whirls around to cut them off. As the branch is of no imaginable use to the creature, and only the males possess the horns, the supposition that it is done to call the female is added by the author. The lower side of the upper horn is covered by a close growth of fine hairs, which, as Fabricius pointed out very early in the history of the insect, could not be retained if the limb were held between the horns tightly enough to cut it. The figure of this beetle will not deceive entomologists: it would have misled no one if the feet and claws had been supplied from the perfect specimens or good figures so easily obtained. There is no notice of its mutilated condition in the text. The following quotation occurs on page 159: "Further search among the leaves revealed several centipedes, which were more to be dreaded than the beetles, as their bites will throw one into a fever." This is the common belief among the negroes. Experiments in parts where fevers are excessively common have not verified it. Other instances might be cited which tend to show a degree of credulity and of recklessness in statement not always to be harmonized with the demands of science. The appendix contains a list of the birds collected by Mr. Ober, with descriptions of the new species.

Catharine and Craufurd Tait. A Memoir. Edited by the Rev. Wm. Benham. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—This memoir of the wife and son of Archbishop Tait lets the reader into the heart of an English home in which the religious duties and emotions made the central and absorbing fact of life; it has been printed, indeed, in the belief "that the lessons which these memorials are likely, under God's blessing, to call forth are too important for the Church of God to allow them to lie buried within the sanctity of home," and certainly no lesser motive would excuse such a revelation of the most sacred joys and sorrows of private life. Mrs. Tait seems to have had from childhood a devoutly religious temperament. She was bred in the evangelical faith, but in early life she received strong High-Church notions from Edward Fortescue, her brother-in-law, whose influence she believed would have made her a nun, had she not married Mr. Tait. The character of this influence may be judged of by the account of how she passed Good Friday in Mr. Fortescue's house:

"The day had been spent in fasting and prayer, in the solemn endeavor to realize the scenes of that terrible day in Jerusalem; and when the hours of darkness came, as they were alone in their rooms, there was an awful silence, broken at intervals by his deep voice through their open doors, pronouncing the words of the dying Saviour on the cross, this lasting through the three hours of agony He hung upon it."

It is not strange that about this time "her higher life was quickened by a message which seemed to have come direct from the source of it, when, on some occasion of keen enjoyment of the earthly pleasures surrounding her, she seemed to hear the words, 'make for the higher!'" From these vague and morbid emotions she was withdrawn by her marriage with Mr. Tait, then head-master of Rugby, and her duties in her new and busy station called out her surprising practical ability, which was as marked a characteristic as her devotion.

After four years at Rugby—the happiest of their life—they removed to the Deanery of Carlisle, where they met with their great sorrow, the loss of five little daughters within five weeks. The narrative of this event is written by Mrs. Tait herself, to be published after her death, in the hope that it might "speak a word of help and comfort to those upon

whom a similar burden is laid." This is the most remarkable portion of the book; it is acutely painful in itself and heartrending in its minute delineation of every detail of suffering and shade of sorrow, while the whole is pervaded by a trustful and almost fervent religious resignation. Fortunately it is seldom that such a story is laid bare; the pain it gives must exceed any comfort it can afford, and the experience itself is too sacred ever to be disclosed. The narrative throws light on the education which was thought good for these children; it is not unfair to let the reader judge by this sentence about one of them not yet nine years old: "Almost always in health, this dear girl would find and choose hymns about death; from her earliest babyhood death had seemed to my May a great and blessed reality."

Shortly after the children's death Mr. Tait was made Bishop of London and afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. His wife, in the new duties she was thus called on to discharge, won all hearts; her business as well as her social abilities found full occupation, and her time was largely spent among the charitable institutions, particularly those which had the care of children in view. St. Peter's Orphanage was wholly her work. In these later years are introduced the memorials of Craufurd Tait, the story of whose boyhood and youth relieves the sombre religiosity of the book, and agreeably corrects the notion that home-life in this family was only a succession of prayers, Sunday-school lessons, hymns, religious books and services. He was amiable, attractive, and full of spirits, given to sports as much as to books; and in his manhood was modest, diligent, and devoted to his work in the Church. His death, soon after his visit to the United States, which is still pleasantly remembered by those who met him, was the last trial left for his mother, who survived it only six months. Throughout the book are attractive glimpses of English life, but the interest is made to centre in the exhibition of Christian character here given—examples which will appeal forcibly to those who sympathize with the emotions and share the conviction in which the mother and her son had their real life.

Shakespeare's Morals: Suggestive Selections, with brief collateral readings and Scriptural references. Edited by Arthur Gilman, M.A. (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Gilman has the authority of Coleridge for holding that Shakspere especially lends himself to the editor of "beauties and selections," and it is apparently to show how just is the eulogy of Coleridge and others of Shakspere's morality that he has made this book. It is well made, and evinces a great deal of thoughtful diligence wholly superior to mere ingenuity, but we cannot help thinking that the editor has been at considerable pains to do something not at all needful to be done. He says himself, in his preface, that "It was not the intention of Shakespeare in his literary work to elaborate a system of morals, or to give his hearers maxims for their guidance in life," and, little as can be certainly said of any of Shakspere's "intentions," this seems an entirely safe thing to say. Nevertheless, if it were anywhere maintained that Shakspere's morality could not be favorably "contrasted with that of the writers of his own or the succeeding age, or those of the present day," as Coleridge says, or even if it was not felt by every one to appear in his "literary work" as a distinct element of it, it would be worth while to show the contrary. But the fact is quite otherwise, and there is really no serious reason for turning Shakspere into a "hoard of maxims." To do this is really to pervert Shakspere. The question is not as to the fact of Shakspere's morality, but how morality appears in Shakspere. He had, as Carlyle says, "penetrated into innumerable things; far into Nature" and "far into man's workings with Nature," and his morality is so distinct an element of his work because "moral ideas are really so main a part of human life," to quote a recent utterance concerning Wordsworth. How different this is from presenting a series of didactic maxims, such as the Book of Proverbs presents, or even the Sermon on the Mount, it is not at all difficult to see. Whether it is better from a moral point of view, is not a consideration; to confound the two is simply a perversion which must jar on any nice literary sense; and it must in the end lead to all manner of intricate and whimsical perversion, of which it is no excuse at all to plead the best intentions. It does so lead with Mr. Gilman. He divides his book into sections, each labelled with some moral maxim or statement of doctrine, such as "Character not to be judged by Appearances," "Hereditary Sin," "The Atonement," "The Guilt and Folly of Suicide." Under each of these he quotes one or more passages from Shakspere, from the Bible, Sophocles, the late Dr. Bushnell, and others, as he chances to think of a literary analogue. The result is grotesque in one view, certainly, but our criticism is that it is misleading. Under "Hereditary Sin," for example, we have (page 22) from "Timon of Athens":

"There's nothing level in our cursed natures
But direct villainy."

Under "Character not to be judged by Appearances" (page 29) is quoted this from "The Winter's Tale":

"The self-same sun that shines upon his court
Hides not his visage from our cottage, but
Looks on alike";

and from the Bible, "He maketh his sun to rise on the evil and on the good," etc. Under "The Guilt and Folly of Suicide" (page 196) we have *Hamlet's* soliloquy. Who does not see here that *Timon's* fierce invective does not involve any belief about the doctrine of hereditary sin; that the passage from Matthew has a wholly different meaning from that of *Perdita's* words; and that *Hamlet's* bitter "Thus conscience does make cowards of us all" is not an expression of either the guilt or folly of self-slaughter? And these random instances might be multiplied by the dozen. Taken together, moreover, they leave a total impression of the way in which moral ideas appear in Shakspere that is quite as false as these individual instances, and there is less protection against this because it is not palpable. It is, of course, not only in quality of thought that Shakspere differs from the author of "The Proverbial Philosophy"; and its indirect implication that the contrary is true forms the main demerit of Mr. Gilman's book, and makes it one of the last which we would put into the hands of the student of Shakspere, who, reading Shakspere by its light, would, we are convinced, read him quite amiss. The importance of noticing such books at any length is obviously in direct proportion to the importance of not reading Shakspere amiss, whatever views it is best to entertain about original sin and the guilt of suicide.

Some Account of the Bills of Credit or Paper Money of Rhode Island, 1710-1786. By Elisha R. Potter and Sidney S. Rider. With twenty illustrations. Rhode Island Historical Tracts, No. 8. (Providence: Sidney S. Rider. 1880.)—Mr. Rider has rewritten Potter's history of the Rhode Island paper money into a very handsome volume, with curious facsimiles, and, in one case, an actual specimen of the colonial issues. The work has gained very much in clearness of form and statement, and the additions made by Mr. Rider are of real importance. The antiquarian interest seems to predominate over the economic interest in the book, so that the casual reader would fail to derive the instruction which the history really carries with it in regard to paper issues. It is safe to say that there is no variety of form or device for the issue of paper money which was not tried in the colonies. Rhode Island, especially, subjected the notion of "banks" to a full and final experiment. The "banks" were masses of paper notes printed and issued by the colonial government, and loaned on the security of mortgages. This device, which finds advocates over and over again in every generation, was thoroughly tested here in the colonial days. It would be a great service to the science of currency, supposing that the material exists, if some one of the investigators would give us the history of the accounts of these banks—what portion of the interest was never paid (no security was given for the interest), what portion of the principal was lost, how many suits the state had to prosecute against delinquents and how the suits resulted, how many debtors were not found, etc. It is known in general that the results of the experiment under all these heads were most unfortunate. Especially did the plan fail in respect to so much "redemption" as it provided for. It was assumed that when the loans were repaid to the state they would be paid in the notes, which would thereby be withdrawn and cancelled. If this plan had proved practicable the people would have operated upon themselves, from period to period, voluntary expansions and contractions of the currency. Of course they never did this, but, when the time for payment and contraction came, they clamored for further issues and further depreciation. Thus each bank made another one more necessary, and the debtor interest became larger and more vitally interested in the system.

Nine of these "banks" were issued before the Revolution. The "tenor" of the notes was varied so that different species of them were afloat, having different ratings. It is worth noticing that in one case, where a sum was provided for retiring certain counterfeits, these were worth twice as much as genuine notes. The whole history shows that the "bank" scheme is a mischievous delusion, that the paper system was a clog on the colony, and that, when the English Government forbade any further issues of bills of credit, none of the terrible consequences which had been anticipated came to pass.

Methodism: Old and New. With Sketches of some of its early Preachers. By J. R. Flanigan. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

1880.)—This book is an amplification of a number of newspaper articles the original purpose of which was much slighter, but whose reception persuaded the author to continue and expand them into what he trusts, with some reason, is "such an interesting and running synopsis of the history of Methodism as will prove entertaining as well as instructive to readers of all denominations." It is for its entertainment that it will be mainly esteemed, perhaps. As a history of Methodism its value is not of great importance; it does not succeed in giving any clear idea of the rise or distinctive tenets of Methodism, though it seems to attempt this; but Methodists themselves will, of course, find 'this no blemish, and it is for Methodists that it appears to have been written. It is also almost altogether devoted to the history of Methodism in Philadelphia, though it contains a sketch of Wesley's life, and allusions to the progress of the cause in England and in other parts of this country. That history, it may strike the wholly "unsectarian" reader, seems to have been varied by an uncommon number of painful controversies, schisms, and heartburnings, but his minute record of these is an excellent witness of the historian's impartiality and his confidence in the essential nobility of his theme. Mr. Flanigen enjoyed the acquaintance of many of the "old-time" preachers of his denomination in Philadelphia, however, and his book contains, as its most interesting material, numerous sketches of these worthies, many of whom must have been decidedly picturesque figures; and to the picturesque side of them he has the merit of not being blind. Among these were Richard Allen, first bishop of "The African Methodist Episcopal Church," at one time a slave, and, though "learned only from nature," nevertheless "rather an extraordinary man for his times"; Bishop Asbury, to whom American Methodism owes more than to any other man, we are told; Dr. Durbin, who "reminded one constantly of Henry Clay," though they were utterly opposed in manner and style, and resembled each other only, so far as is mentioned, in their power over audiences; William Barnes, familiarly known as "Billy Barnes"; J. N. Maffitt, Joseph Rusling, Lorenzo Dow and his wife Peggy, "old father Gruber," "Pappy" Neal, and many others. Next, of course, to Dow the Rev. Billy Barnes was possibly the most eccentric of this array. Mr. Flanigen has several amusing anecdotes to tell of him. His wife used to restrain his eloquence on occasion by catching his eye and giving him a warning look; once in the midst of a fervid sermon he broke out: "Oh! you may look, and you may look, Mrs. Barnes, but the tri-colored flag of Methodism, the Bible, the Hymn-Book, and the Discipline, shall be carried to the front in triumph if it costs William Barnes his life." He wore a wig and was accordingly reproved for ostentation. "Preaching one day one of his fiery sermons, he raised his hand over his head, exclaiming, 'Here is William Barnes with his wig,' and suiting the action to the word, and grasping the wisp of hair and holding it aloft, he continued, 'and here is William Barnes without his wig. How do you like him best?'" The effect was, we are assured, "not only electric but to some extent ludicrous." Mr. Barnes's style was of an oriental character, and as it is probably typical of much of the preaching of the day, we may reproduce part of a single sentence quoted by Mr. Flanigen, as follows: "the blue vault of heaven, where we shall pluck the stars as flowers from a garden, and, dressed in garments of dazzling light, we shall drink from cups of gold circled with diamonds and rubies, from the pure and everlasting springs that circle and flow around and over Jehovah's starry throne." Mr. Maffitt was also "sensational in the highest degree," though the author shares the distrust of many persons, he says, who "refused to believe that he had ever truly experienced religion." He was, however, of no great account, and is described as a mere "pyrotechnic exhalation." A preacher of a different sort was the Rev. "Josie" Rusling; he allowed "a very respectable man," who was, nevertheless, "perhaps just enough unhinged in mind to have become devilish," to shout out "That is a lie," upon three successive Sabbaths, at some point in the sermon, without losing his dignity or vouchsafing a retort. The occurrence, by the way, led ultimately to a long lawsuit. Lorenzo Dow is described at length by Mr. Flanigen, who seems not without a dash of humor occasionally, though, for the most part, he has the faculty under good control; he says of Dow, for example: "He wore his hair long like a woman, except that he didn't put it up." We also get stray anecdotal allusions to preachers of other denominations, as to the Rev. "Jimmie" Patterson, a Presbyterian divine, who "preached that there were children in hell only a week old," which the author terms "egregious doctrine," and a nameless preacher of the same persuasion (his residence is, however, given) whose rich congregation have tried to get rid of him twice by the heroic means of reducing his salary \$1,000 each time; but he still "sticks"—a standing argument, Mr. Flanigen thinks, of the wisdom of

itineracy, under which "this brother would, doubtless, be doing effective work on a circuit where the people might like him well enough." Here we seem to lose sight of Mr. Flanigen's humorous faculty entirely, but we have said enough to show that he has made a moderately amusing book.

Four Months in a Sneak-Box. By Nathaniel H. Bishop. (Boston : Lee & Shepard. 1879. 12mo, pp. xii. 322.)—The first of Mr. Bishop's boat-voyages from Northern waters to the Gulf of Mexico will be remembered (see the *Nation*, No. 673) as having been made in a paper canoe, and by the route of the so-called "inner Atlantic coast." The present volume describes the second of these long voyages, made in 1875-1876, for the most part upon the Ohio and the Mississippi Rivers, and with a small duck-boat, or "sneak-box," instead of a canoe as his vehicle. This craft had the advantage of sufficient strength to serve as a bed without risk of injuring it, which cannot be said of a wooden or paper canoe; being three or four times as heavy, it had the further advantage, as we consider it, that the voyager could not strap it upon his back and carry it across portages; weighing two hundred pounds, it could be "conveniently transported from one stream to another in an ordinary wagon." It was, Mr. Bishop tells us, "a very home-like boat, which, though only twelve feet long, four feet wide, and thirteen inches deep, was strong, stiff, dry, and safe, a craft that could be sailed or rowed, as wind, weather, or inclination might dictate." The interest of this book, as of the earlier one, is mainly in the notes of the rough types of character which Mr. Bishop met, notably of the floating population of the Mississippi River. There is abundant incident, too, often of a more or less peculiar sort. The maps which accompany the volume, though on a small scale, claim the merit of accuracy, having been engraved at the Bureau of the Coast Survey. Mr. Bishop has, indeed, a taste for accurate geography; but he speaks perhaps too confidently sometimes, as where he says (p. 119) that "the Missouri is the longest river in the world, and the Mississippi is only a branch of it." Even allowing his estimate for that river's length of "4,363 miles, without counting some of its highest sources," still the measurements of the Nile and the Yang-tse-kiang remain to be completed before this question can be considered as settled. For the rest, Mr. Bishop's book is written in a direct and readable style, and makes a closely-matched companion volume to his "Voyage of the Paper Canoe."

A Hand-Book of Double Stars. With a catalogue of 1,200 double stars and extensive lists of measures. With additional notes bringing the measures up to 1879. For the use of Amateurs. By Edward Crossley, F.R.A.S., Joseph Gledhill, F.R.A.S., and James M. Wilson, M.A., F.R.A.S. (London and New York: Macmillan. 1879. Pp. 464. Illustrated.)—This work on double stars by three distinguished amateur astronomers of England deserves especial notice and recommendation to the amateur observers of America. We have in this country scores of private observatories eminently well fitted to do work of value, and owned by gentlemen who have sufficient leisure to undertake really serious labor. The most common complaint from amateurs is that they do not know to what use to put their instruments, nor *exactly* how to spend their limited time to the best advantage. To those of them who care to take up the subject of double stars this book answers all questions. With it they can see what stars to observe, how to observe them, and how to draw useful and interesting conclusions from observation. As a book "for the use of amateurs" it is just what was needed, and if properly read and studied any intelligent owner of a telescope can learn precisely how he can obtain a solid return for his astronomical investment.

Although it is chiefly to amateurs that we desire to commend the work, it deserves notice for certain special points which will be of value to the professional astronomer. Its catalogue of twelve hundred stars makes a useful observing list; the notes to this contain a synoptic history of each star; the chapters on the computation of orbits of binary stars by Dr. Doberek and Mr. Wilson are of immediate practical value; the bibliography of double stars is very full and valuable, and the various topics are treated from the view-points of actual observers who are familiar with the practical difficulties.

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